Title: Taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers. Exploring a school-led route of Initial Teacher Education in England through the lens of a selection of primary Headteachers.

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Abstract

This thesis seeks to explore the realities of taking the lead in the SD (School Direct) model of school-led model of Initial Teacher Training (ITT). It focuses on the perceptions of a selected group of 12 Primary Head Teachers across two School Direct Alliances in England as they embark upon their first experience of training a cohort of PGCE (Post Graduate Certificate in Education) student teachers. The study is situated at a time when school-led routes for the preparation of future teachers are gaining ground and partnership agreements between schools and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are evolving.

The study is situated in the non-positivist qualitative paradigm of phenomenology and gave Headteachers a voice to explore their experiences over their first year taking the lead in a PGCE route of ITT. The detailed evidence was gained from interviews with each participant at the beginning and the end of their first year taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model. The narratives of the HTs revealed their perceptions of ITE and their belief in the role of schools for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, the evidence shows how these beliefs and perceptions shaped their reality of taking the lead in ITT working in partnership with a Higher Education Institution. Critiqued against a background of the reform of ITE, the

research findings will inform future partnerships between HEIs and schools and show how these can be sustained and developed at a point where the role of HEIs is being weakened as a consequence of recent legislation. Furthermore, it is envisaged that findings will contribute to the debate on ITE by giving primary HTs a voice to explain why schools might seek to move away from the traditional model of ITE

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background to the Research

1.1 Introduction to the chapter.

In this chapter, I will explain what stimulated my interest in the preparation of future teachers and why this interest has developed. I will outline my teaching career from that of a primary school teacher in the late 1980s to a university lecturer. I will show how these experiences led to my growing interest in the area of Initial Teacher Education (ITE), most notably in the partnership agreements which developed between schools and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in England for the preparation of future teachers. Additionally, I will outline the growth of the existing landscape of ITE by reviewing key government policy over the period early 1990s to present day. I will clarify how this policy and practice in ITE in England has resulted in an increasing number of alternative routes into teaching and changed the nature of partnership between schools and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) for the preparation of future teachers. An exploration of the key terms ITE and ITT (Initial Teacher Training) will also be briefly explained as the aims and purposes of this preparation are to some extent defined by the choice of one of these two acronyms. Finally, having set out the background to this study I will state the aims of the

research and the research questions. An overview of the thesis will be the conclusion of this first chapter.

1.2 Background to the study

In my early teaching career as a primary school teacher, I had 'in school' responsibility for supporting trainee teachers on placement and this responsibility included liaising with the university tutor who observed and at that time, assessed student teachers. As the school mentor my role was to support these student teachers by way of informal feedback and negotiated teaching opportunities in relation to the requirements of the placement and targets set by the university tutor. My interest and passion for this role led to a career move to become a lecturer in a HEI in England. This HEI specialised in ITE and my role was teaching across a range of courses and supervising future teachers. Throughout this period, I have been constantly fascinated and challenged by the debate between government, HEIs and schools in England about who should be taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers (universities or schools) and where the balance of this preparation should be located (school or university). Based on my experiences in school I had believed that the relationship between schools and universities in this preparation was that of a partnership, a partnership where universities and schools shared their respective skills and knowledge for the preparation of future teachers. However, in my new role as a university lecturer in the 1990s I discovered that my expectations of what constituted a partnership differed from the practice. In some cases, I felt that the balance of power in key areas appeared to be very heavily weighted towards the university for example in decisions about the final assessment of students for the award of Qualified Teacher

Status (QTS). The organisation of partnerships between schools and my own HEI was complex and challenging for me to understand. The basis for my research as to why schools would want to take the lead in ITT has therefore developed over several decades as a consequence of these experiences. Alongside this personal and professional development, I have observed how education policy in England has resulted in the growth of alternative routes into teaching which have evolved over this period. This has seen a move towards a range of school-led training models for the preparation of future teachers, for example School Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) and the School Direct model of ITT (SD). These new models have resulted in the expansion of a range of different types of partnership models between schools and universities and have changed the landscape of ITE in England (Whitty, 2014:464). As a result of this expansion my role as a university lecturer in ITE has changed with more of my teaching taking place in schools and my supervision of student teachers more in line with quality assurance as opposed to assessment of QTS.

1.3 The reform of ITE in England: 1992 – present day

The background to these changes is incremental, spanning a period of years and I will now outline the reform of ITE in England and the changing political landscape for the preparation of future teachers from 1992- present day It is important to set out that the reform of ITE was positioned against a backdrop of change in education policy which included the expansion of partnership agreements between HEIs and schools. This continued expansion of partnership arrangements came about as a result of two significant publications: circular 9/92 secondary (Circular 9/92, DfE 1992) and circular 9/93 primary (Circular 14/93, DfE 1993). These two circulars listed a more

demanding set of requirements in the management of courses and selection, training and assessment of students in an attempt to ensure that schools became full partners with universities in these areas (Furlong et al.1996:39). Running in parallel has been a drive towards more school-led training (Ellis, 2006; DfE, 2010) and an increase in the time spent by student teachers in schools. This move towards more school-led training gained momentum with the publication of the 2010 White Paper (DfE, 2010) introduced by the Conservative led Coalition government in England. This White Paper (DfE, 2010) set out a reform of (English) schools with the intent of raising standards in education in line with the high educational standards of 'our competitors' (DfE, 2010:8). In line with this aspiration the White Paper (DfE, 2010) set out the reform of ITE and introduced a new school-led route into teaching. This school-led route was designed to enable schools to 'influence the way in which ITT is delivered' (Teaching Agency, 2012:3) with the intent of improving systems of recruitment and training by creating more school-led programmes. The reform of ITE was predicated on the basis that the quality of teachers in England is integral to the agenda of raising standards in education and that this quality could be achieved by giving more opportunity for schools to engage with and take the lead in ITT (Finn, 2017:168). Michael Gove the then secretary of Education reiterated this again in his speech at the National College in 2012:

> There is a growing trend amongst world-leading education systems toward more classroom-based teacher training. And that's no surprise to me. Because that's where the real experts in education - teachers and leaders - tend to be found (Gove, 2012).

The 2010 White Paper goes further than previous Department for Education (DfE) led initiatives and directives by giving outstanding schools a much greater role in ITT 'in the same way that our best hospitals train new doctors and nurses' (DfE, 2010:3 para 2). This included stipulating that graduates would spend more time in school through an expansion of school-led routes into ITT. A key message in the 2010 White Paper was that too little training for teaching was taking place 'on the job' (DfE, 2010:19) and that increasing the time that student teachers spent teaching in the classroom would redress this balance and increased the quality of future teachers (DfE, 2010:12). The focus of this increased time was identified particularly in relation to 'the skills which define great teaching' (Gove, 2013), the teaching of the core subjects and increasing the emphasis on behaviour management. This expansion of school-led routes into ITT was followed up one year later with an ITT strategy implementation plan (DfE, 2011b). The plan outlined a new school-led route called the SD model of ITT and granted to those schools deemed by OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) as good/outstanding more autonomy in key areas of recruitment and training at graduate level. More significantly for my thesis it gave schools the power to take the lead in ITT. As part of the SD model, a cluster of schools would come together with a lead school to form a School Direct Alliance (SDA) and must work in partnership with an 'accredited ITT provider' (Teaching Agency, 2012:3). The accredited ITT provider would retain the responsibility for the recommendation of the award of qualified teacher status (QTS) and the accountability for the quality of the provision (DfE, 2012:3). This has not only increased the remit of partnership agreements between schools and HEIs as schools have become more closely involved

in the selection and training of student teachers but seeks to address the recruitment shortage as these recruits are then expected to be employed in the school (DfE, 2011a:11 para2). This move added more weight to the ongoing debate about who should be training these 'top graduates,' that is to say those who have a 2:1 in key subjects, for a career in teaching. Furthermore, the SD route into teaching signalled a reform of ITE and consequently a change in the power relationships between schools and universities. Universities who had traditionally been responsible for these key areas would no longer be the sole providers of and setting the agenda for ITE. Murray and Mutton (2016:66) suggest that this decision to give more autonomy to schools and also to increase student teachers' time spent in schools would have a significant impact on the organisation of teacher education. Under the SD model groups of schools working together as a SDA in partnership with a HEI in their capacity as an accredited provider would be providers of ITT. This would be in direct competition with the model of ITE traditionally provided by HEIs. Furthermore, a negotiated portion of the funding would move from the accredited provider, in this case the University, with the student, to the school (Teaching Agency, 2012). ITE was now open to market forces in which schools 'bid' for places from the DfE and selected an accredited provider to work in partnership with (Teaching Agency, 2012:8). The launch of the SD model links directly to the aims of this study as it establishes SD as both a principal route into ITT and a catalyst for the changing role of HEIs both of which are central to my research.

1.4 Alternative routes into ITE

Together with the growth of this in school responsibility for the preparation of future teachers has come the growth of alternative routes into teaching in English schools over the past 20 years (Gardener, 2013:44). Traditionally, the award of QTS is an integral part of a range of teaching routes validated as programmes of study by a University that provides ITE. These routes include undergraduate (UG) programmes of study (BA/BSc with QTS), post graduate routes (PGCE) and the QTS assessment only route to qualified teacher status. Prior to 2012 candidates for the award previously applied to the DfE, however this has changed because of the revised qualifications and induction regulations which came into force on 1st April 2012. At the time of undertaking the research for this thesis, the provider of the training, that is the HEI or School Alliance informed the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) when the trainee had completed the programme. At that time, the NCTL was an executive agency of the Department for Education (DfE) and has since been repurposed in 2019 as the Teaching Regulation Agency (TRA). While the BA/BSc (QTS), PGCE with QTS and QTS only routes into qualified teaching have continued to be available and have delivered a significant number of Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) there have been other routes introduced by successive Labour governments between 1998 and 2009 (Whitty, 2014: 470). These include employment based programmes for example 'Teach First.' However, as Cochran-Smith (2015: xiv)) explains, the expansion of these routes have been gaining ground and the apparent shift of ITE from HEIs into schools has more recently been at an increasing pace in line with new educational policy. In essence, it would appear that the

government has authorised schools to take more control of teacher training as part of a long term plan to move in favour of school-centred initial teacher training as opposed to the more traditional routes provided by HEIs (Murray and Passy, 2014:45).

At the commencement of this study (2013) there were two main graduate routes into teaching: the SD route which is based in schools, and the traditional Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which is based in universities. By 2020 a number of alternative routes have been and are still being developed which includes a Teach First leadership development programme and a newly accredited postgraduate apprenticeship programme (UCAS, 2019). Like the SD model of ITT, the nationally recognised work based Teaching Apprenticeship route into teaching looks to sustain the recruitment of future teachers at a graduate level and enable those registered on these courses to complete a postgraduate-level apprenticeship. However, the involvement of HEIs at this point in the delivery and development of this route into teaching is varied and the implications for partnership in the preparation of future teachers uncertain at the time of writing. The potential for the lack of a strong role for HEIs has raised concerns from teaching unions about the de-skilling and narrowing of the profession (ATL, 2017).

1.5 Partnerships between schools and HEIs

Although there had been informal partnerships between universities and schools over the period of my own undergraduate provision and throughout my first years of teaching in the early 1990s, the publication of circular 9/93 (DfE) for primary (circular 9/92 (DfE) for secondary) signalled changes to partnership arrangements between

schools and universities. As previously stated, these publications identified statutory requirements for HEIs to enter into formal partnership arrangements with schools in the areas of recruitment and in the management of the curriculum for ITE. Consequently, the development of joint responsibilities between HEIs and schools for training future teachers in these areas brought about a change of responsibility and workplace practice for me as (by then) a lecturer in HEI. For example, my role as a university tutor in relation to the supervision of students on placement shifted from one of the assessment of QTS to one which was more in line with implementing quality assurance procedures at the school. More recently as a result of the publication of the White Paper (2010) more of my teaching responsibilities with graduate students is now taking place in schools as opposed to on campus. Subsequently, the legislation over the two decades from the publication of circulars 9/92 and 9/93 to present day has changed the landscape of ITE including the nature of partnerships between University and schools. It is these changes over successive years which has stimulated a growing interest for me in partnership arrangements. My own university has been quick to respond to these changes over the years and has set up joint interviewing procedures between tutors and Headteachers (HTs) of prospective students on both PGCE and UG courses. Additionally, supervision of students on placement has developed significantly with staff in schools taking the lead for assessment and tutors from the university leading mentor training and implementing quality assurance of all student placements. Over this period of change, I perceived a shift in the relationship between HEIs and partner schools as partnership models became more sophisticated. Government legislation had given schools more 'voice' in key areas of preparing future teachers and consequently I observed a growing ownership of ITE across and within those schools I worked alongside. However, notwithstanding this shift, I felt

that the term partnership was becoming increasingly problematic because despite these developments in recruitment and assessment of students there appeared to be limited change in many areas of partnership. Early literature reviews which supported some small-scale research projects that I carried out in 1997 (Mills, 1997) and 2002 (Mills, 2002) suggested that the body of available research did not fully explore the full range of partnership opportunities between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, this was primarily focussed on evaluations of partnerships, written by researchers in HEIs (Burton and Greher, 2007; Brady, 2000). This still seems to be the case and there appears to be little research which gives a voice to the schools, particularly primary schools, and which reflects their perspectives of partnership and the roles that school and university take in ITE. Therefore, I feel there is a need for more in depth study of partnership models between HEIs and schools.

As stated in section 1.3, recent government White Papers (DfE, 2010; DFE, 2011a) have given rise to the expansion of routes into Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and these recent reforms in ITE have heralded the establishment of a new model of ITT based in schools: the School Direct (SD) model. Prospective student teachers can apply for one of two routes in this model of ITT, salaried and non-salaried. In the salaried model of SD as the title suggests this route into teaching 'allows you to learn 'on the job' and earn a salary while you train towards Qualified Teacher Status (UCAS, 2019). Potential students must have been in employment for three years and are recruited, interviewed and based in school and the training follows more closely that which was provided through the GTP (Graduate Teacher Programme) developed in 1998 which lead to the award of QTS. As Parker (2015:107) comments in the SD model the

‘direction and impact stems unequivocally from the school’ with the school taking the lead with minimal input from a partner HEI. Alternatively, in the non-salaried route potential students are still recruited, interviewed and then based in a school but do not need to meet the employment criteria. This model of SD also leads to the award of QTS, however ‘The school will not necessarily be your employer, and in many ways, your training will be similar to other programmes’ in HEIs (UCAS, 2019). The non-salaried route into teaching is normally more in line with the traditional model of post graduate ITE in that it is taught by both school and HEI and may lead to the award of PGCE. It is the latter model of SD which is the vehicle by which I will explore school-led routes into ITE and is therefore central to my research. At the time of formulating and undertaking my research (2014-2019) my current role was that of a university programme leader (UPL) and I was supporting a group of primary schools who had formed two separate School Direct Alliances (SDAs). This role gave me a unique opportunity to research and observe first-hand and from the school perspective why these particular primary HTs have made the decision to take the lead in ITT. This issue will be addressed by considering partnership through the lens of a selection of primary school Head teachers (HTs) as they embark on one school-led route of ITT. It is envisaged that findings will contribute to the debate on ITE by giving primary HTs a voice to explain why schools might seek to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers and to move away from the traditional model of ITE. I feel that this perspective could help to inform HEIs and schools as to how partnerships between these two stakeholders can be sustained and developed effectively at a point where the role of HEIs is perceived as being weakened as a consequence of recent legislation.

It is important to note the organisation of this particular model of SD at my institution as there can be variation across HEIs working in partnership with schools to meet the requirements of the PGCE programme. This can generally be determined by considering the roles and responsibilities of schools and HEIs in relation to the organisation of the programme, the delivery of the programme and the quality assurance the of this school-led route. As outlined in the publication of the strategy document 'Training our next generation of outstanding teachers' (DfE, 2011a) and the 'Implementation plan' five months later (DfE, 2011b) this model is one whereby schools forming an Alliance recruit and train their cohort of student teachers (Beauchamp et al. 2013:17) and 'choose an accredited provider of ITT to work with to provide the training' (DfE, 2011a:12). In my institution, the partnership agreement set out between schools and HEIs leads on from the ITT Implementation strategy (DfE, 2011b) and the guidelines for SD (Teaching Agency, 2012). The SDA have taken the lead in all areas of recruitment, training and delivery of the curriculum for ITT with the exception of two core modules. These core modules are taught at Masters' Level in line with the PGCE programme which is currently validated by the partner HEI. The HEI plans, teaches and assesses these two core modules, which form the basis of the PGCE element of the programme. Additionally, the partner HEI maintains the accountability for the quality of the training in line with validation and assessment requirements for both the PGCE and QTS, in line with the SD guidelines (Teaching Agency, 2012). Within each of the two lead schools in the 2 SDAs there is a 'co-ordinator' a member of staff who is the focal point for both students and the HEI. Their role is to oversee and manage the organisation of the programme and carry out internal QA measures for the SDA. While there are some variations across the two Alliances about the organisation of the delivery of the curriculum for ITE and the core

modules, in both Alliances this teaching take place over two days and is located in the lead school of the SDA. Alongside this both Alliances have organised the programme so that students are based in a host school for their serial attachment (normally 3 days each week) and for at least one of the three significant placements across the one-year programme. Consequently, the students are located in school for all of their training over the period of the one-year PGCE.

1.6 ITE or ITT?

When discussing the preparation of teachers, the aims and purposes of this preparation are to some extent defined by the choice of one of two acronyms, initial teacher education (ITE) or initial teacher training (ITT). This choice is significant, and it is important to clarify this distinction from the beginning in my thesis. Bullough Jr (2014:189) explores the use of the terms training and education to establish that while these terms are used interchangeably this is complex and challenging. The term training implies a curriculum where there are defined outcomes, actions which can be taught and which link to a desired result (Chitty, 2009; Franchi, 2016). Alternatively, the term education relates to a process where outcomes can be 'messy and highly context sensitive' (Bullough, 2014:189). Winch (2017:4) expands on this and observes that there are a number of views that the public and educational professionals have about the nature of teaching which may clarify the selection of the terms ITT or ITE. One view is of teaching as craft workers who select from and use a range of past experiences to guide their practice. This view of teaching seems in line with that presented by Michael Gove the (then) Secretary of State for Education of the Conservative/Liberal Democrat Coalition government in an early key speech of June 2010. In this statement, Gove (2016:6) set out his personal view of teaching,

‘Teaching is a craft and it is best learnt as an apprentice observing a master craftsman or woman.’

This belief held by Gove that teaching is a craft underpins government legislation since 2010 and is emphasised by his use of the term ITT in subsequent speeches. In studying relevant documentation in England there appears to be added complexity in the use of the terms ITE and ITT which are often used interchangeably. OFSTED generally uses the term ITE and the Department for Education in England generally uses the term ITT (Franchi, 2016:2). Alternatively, Chitty (2009:259) argues that the use of the term education as opposed to that of training when considering teaching is important as:

> education is all about transforming the mind so as to equip us for independent judgement and rational action; whereas ‘training’ should be directed towards practical skills for particular ends.

Here the nature of teaching is based on a view of teachers as professionals (Burstow and Winch, 2014:4) who use both theory and practical experience to shape their practice. It is this combination of transforming the mind through education alongside the development of practical skills which results in the term ITE being used for the preparation of future teachers. Positioning this in the context of the SD model Burgess

(2013:9) explores this complexity further stating that the award of Post Graduate Certificate in Education which normally includes some Masters level components is identified by the use of the term ITE while those programmes which only result in the award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) are generally described as ITT. As previously stated, the SD model which is the vehicle for the research for this thesis has two M level components and based on the comments of Burgess (2013:9) this would indicate that the term ITE should be used. However, government publications and other government agencies for example the NCTL identified the SD programme as 'School Direct ITT' (NCTL, 2014). While Burgess provides a rationale for maintaining a commitment to the term ITE, as ITT is the current dominant term, it will be used accordingly when referring specifically to the SD programme.

1.7 Aims of the research

Given the changing landscape of ITE and my own personal experiences in HEI, I am intrigued to know why schools would want to move away from the traditional model of ITE. Consequently, my study aims to explore the realities of a school-led model of ITT as a route into teaching by focusing on the perceptions of a selected group of Head Teachers (HTs) across two SDAs as they embark upon their first experience of training a cohort of PGCE student teachers. It is envisaged that findings will contribute to the debate on ITE by giving these primary school HTs a voice to explore why schools would seek to move away from the traditional model of ITE.

1.8 Research questions

1. For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model?

2. How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school-led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?

3. What might be the implications for future partnerships between schools and HEIs as a result of the decision to take the lead in the SD model of ITT?

1.9 An overview of this thesis

The literature to support this study is presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Chapter 2 explores the political background to the reform in education in recent decades: reform which gave rise to alternative routes into ITE. This chapter establishes that as school-led models of ITT gained ground, there was a discernible shift in the balance of power between HEIs and schools which led to increased opportunity for schools to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT.
Alternatively, chapter 3 offers a theoretical analysis of how the personal histories of the HTs in this study form a basis for making the decision to take the lead in ITT. Throughout this chapter, power relations between the stakeholders in the field of ITE are identified: government, HEIs and schools, and the literature presented explores the concept of power relations between these stakeholders in ITE. The choice of phenomenology as a methodology is discussed in Chapter 4 and the fundamentals of Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) are introduced: an approach to research which both informed and underpinned the data collection and analysis for this study. This chapter sets the scene for chapter 5 which reflects on the research journey and

uses illustrations from the research design to highlight the impact of IPA on the research process. The findings of the study are presented in Chapter 6, with the analysis and discussion pertaining to each research question following. The study is concluded in Chapter 7 where implications and avenues of further research are considered.

Chapter 2. Creating the permitting circumstances: A chronology of changes.

2.1 Introduction to the chapter

This study aims to reflect on the decision of a group of HTs to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the school-led model of SD. The study focuses on the perceptions of this selected group across two SDAs as they embark upon their first experience of taking the lead with a cohort of PGCE student teachers. In this chapter I will contextualise the study in a chronology of changes in government policy for ITE from 1992 – to the publication of the White Paper 'The Importance of Teaching' (DfE, 2010) which created the permitting circumstances that both empowered schools and provided the opportunities for the HTs participating in this study to choose to take the lead in ITT by way of the SD model. The literature reviewed will set out that the implications of these decisions are complex and multifaceted rooted in the influence of political ideology on policy making. The

chapter will be divided into two sections with each section representing one of two key themes to critique and examine these permitting circumstances. Each section will be organised under the headings of each theme: theme one section 2.1, theme two section 2.2 and so forth.

The policies and literature critiqued in theme one, **The reform of ITE,** will establish that the decision to take the lead in a school-led model of ITT is underpinned by the political background of reform in education in recent decades. This reform gave rise to alternative routes into ITE culminating in the White Paper 'The importance of teaching' (DfE 2010) in an attempt to raise standards in primary schools (DfE 2010:4). The literature presented will set out that alternative routes into ITT not only addressed both a national and global agenda to raise standards but reflected a pervading neoliberal ideology and the marketisation of education. In recounting and analysing the political rhetoric, the tensions between the policy makers and HEIs who had provided established routes into ITE prior to these recent government directives are critiqued. The second theme, **The evolving nature of partnerships between HEIs and school,** will analyse the impact of government policy on these two stakeholders. The literature presented will set out that as alternative routes for the preparation of future teachers grew there was a discernible shift in the balance of power between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, the literature cited suggests that this shift had its roots in a perceived dominance in the preparation of future teachers of HEIs by the government. The section is informed by key commentators in the domain of ITE for example Furlong (2005) and McNamara and Murray (2013).

Theme one: The reform of ITE

2.1.1 Introduction to theme one

In chapter 1 of this thesis I highlighted the reform of ITE in England and the changing political landscape for the preparation of future teachers. I outlined that this has been as a result of a number of significant government policies and strategies from 1992-present day and I discussed that this reform was positioned against a backdrop of change in education which included the expansion of partnership agreements between HEIs and schools and a drive towards more school- led training. The background to these changes is important in this thesis as these changes link to RQ1 in that they create the permitting circumstances, the opportunities for HTs to take the lead in ITT. Leading on from this in this first theme I present a critical analysis of educational policy from 1992-present day in which the reform of ITE is embedded. This critical analysis will reflect on the possible precursors of current educational policy which are relative to this thesis and critique the ideas and ambitions of educational reform over this period by means of an exploration of the political ideology of the time. This educational reform was promulgated by the think tanks of the New Right, a political ideology and sociological perspective linked with the rise of a trend in conservatism in England in the late 1970s (Chitty, 2014:126). Finally, I will critique the resulting link with neoliberalism and globalisation which is a feature of educational policy and underpins this theme over this period and which according to Ball (2017:117) culminates in a 'policy flourish' whereby dramatic and sweeping changes to policy and practice occur. In this thesis the SD model which is at the core of this research is one element of practice which is well suited to being described as a policy flourish.

Morris (2012:89) suggests that Education reform is a result of three 'distinct rationales' used in combination with 'statements of policy intent' (ibid). He describes these as logic rooted in history, logic based on an ideology and finally logic which uses comparative data to justify why this reform should take place (Morris, 2012:89). The discussion will utilise these three distinct rationales as lenses by which to critique this reform of ITE.

2.1.2 Accelerated moves

I will now discuss the radical reforms of ITE in England since 1992 and the expansion of partnership agreements between schools and HEIs.

The move towards more school-led training heralded a change in the remit and the role of HEIs and Colleges in ITE. It came to a climax with the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) introduced by the Conservative led Coalition government in England (DfE, 2010). Whitty (2014:466) suggests that this was an 'accelerated move' and Burgess (2013:9) agrees calling this 'a breath-taking pace of introduction' towards schools taking the lead in ITT. While my thesis is rooted in an exploration of why HTs would choose to take the lead in preparing future teachers, it is pertinent to critically reflect on education policy reform and implementation in ITE up to the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) as this has culminated in the development of the SD route into teaching which empowers schools to take this lead and which is the focus of this thesis. This implementation has been seen by some as more than far-reaching policy change, reforming not only teaching and ITE, but one that undermines the role of HEIs in ITE (Murray and Passy, 2014; Furlong, 2013c; Menter, 2013). In exploring the development of these reforms, I will argue that the growth of alternative

routes into teaching over successive governments has resulted in a shift in power relationships between HEIs and schools over the period 1992 to the present day.

Despite Whitty's notion of accelerated moves (2014:466), one could argue that education reform does not happen quickly, generally it takes place over a period of time. As Le Métais (1997:23) comments, education reform is a long-term project building on the policy of the past and the present and developing these towards the education policy of the future. Hansot and Tyack (1982, cited in Beckett and Nuttall, 2017:12) posit the concept of a 'useable past' in teacher education to illustrate how present and future actions are developed from the values and ideas of what has gone before. It could therefore be surmised that these present and future actions are usually the result of an actual or perceived crisis and result in the reform of education policy. This reform of educational policy then embodies the values and ideas of the educational policy makers of the time to resolve this. Moreover, subsequent policy reforms do not totally overturn existing policy: the impetus of policy is made up of small moves which in themselves are relatively insignificant but added together make something big (Ball, 2017:64). Ball (ibid) comments that this history of education reform may be organised into distinct 'policy periods' divided by policy 'ruptures' within which there will be both 'major changes and significant continuities.' Supporting this notion of 'a useable past 'it could be argued that the policy reforms set out in the White Paper 'The importance of teaching' (DfE, 2010) were not new, the foundations were established and had been built upon through successive governments. Furthermore, the White Paper (DfE, 2010) illustrates a response to a perceived crisis in education, one that needed urgent attention and a radical response. As Menter (2013:45) suggests the language of reform 'was couched in a crises

narrative' with phrases including 'radical reform' (DfE, 2010:4) and commenting that reforms are 'absolutely essential' (ibid). Ball (2017:117) posits further that in educational reform, language and policy are reworked into what he labels 'policy trajectory,' policies evolving over time with evolving 'policy narratives' (ibid). According to Ball these 'policy genealogies' (2017:12) had their beginnings in Conservative government reform of 1979-97. Viewing this through Morris' (2012:89) lens of logic rooted in history Morris describes this process as 'looking to the past in the belief that reform in this area will help to achieve or reinforce a desirable aspect of longstanding cultural or national tradition.'

Between the period of 1979-1987 government interest in the preparation of future teachers lay in the desire by the (then) Conservative government to improve the quality of schooling through improving the quality of its teachers (Bates, Lewis and Pickard, 2019:147). It would not seem unreasonable to suggest that a key aspect to improving the quality of teachers would be to improve the quality of teacher education. This is a view shared by Furlong (2005:121) who suggests that:

> it may be a false assumption, but it nevertheless has been assumed that one way of changing the nature of teacher professionalism is to change the structure and content of initial teacher education.

The background to this government aspiration to improve the quality of its teachers was complex, emerging from a wealth of issues with education as a whole and linked

to a poor economy in the industrialised west and 'growing criticism of the swollen state of post war social democracy' (Whitty, 2006:3). Over time, education in schools had shifted from one of personal and social development to 'the dogmatic orthodoxy' of progressive education (Apple, 2004:17) which had consequently led directly to educational and social decline' (ibid). Essentially there was perceived to be a lack of planned progression for pupils with little rigorous assessment in core subjects of mathematics and English and a lack of accountability (Bassey, 2005:19). This ideology of increased control and accountability was shared and developed by the Thatcher government from 1979 -90 (Whitty and Menter, 1988:42). The public sector in general was required to be more accountable from this point forward, managed by the state as a result of increased competition (Whitty 2006:4), and education was no exception. As Ellis (2006:1-2) suggests, once reforms in schools had been established 'it was probably only a matter of time before the quality of teaching would come under the microscope of the policy-makers in Whitehall and Westminster.'

Again, one could argue that the trajectory of this would lead towards Teacher Education and in 1984, the initial stages of this 'policy trajectory' and resulting 'policy narratives' finally permeated into ITE. This could be seen with the establishment of an advisory council to the Secretary of State, the Council of Accreditation for Teachers (CATE). The structure and remit of CATE was in the control of the government and this committee was managed more rigorously than that of any other committee before it. In a return to Whitty's (2014:466) 'accelerated moves' the next 7 years saw some fundamental changes to the management of ITE. By 1984, CATE was set up by the government as an advisory body to endorse courses of ITT (McNamara, Murray and Phillips, 2017:6). In a move which Hill (2002:25)

terms an ‘interventionist process’ to regulate ITE by the government, this heralded the introduction of partnership management of ITE and set the scene for reducing the autonomy of HEIs and Colleges. For the first time this advisory body set out published criteria for the validation of courses of ITE and launched a clear partnership agenda between those HEIs/Colleges involved with the preparation of future teachers and the schools where student teachers were on placement (Whitty, 2006:467). One example of these published criteria was in the requirements that all staff employed by HEIs and teaching pedagogy now had to meet. Taylor (1987:34) observes that qualifications for entry, professional experience, and curriculum coverage of staff employed by HEIs meant that all staff were required to have recent and successful experience of school teaching: a requirement which was not unreasonable given the move to improve teacher education. Additionally, the minimum number of days in school was stipulated for undergraduate (100 days) and postgraduate (75 days) routes into teaching (McNamara, Murray and Phillips, 2017:7). Subsequently by 1993, formal partnership arrangements between school and HEIs became mandatory. In the publication of these criteria the government through CATE, intervened in ITE to change the nature of teacher professionalism by changing the structure and content of ITE (Cochran-Smith, 2015: xiii). Through these regulated constraints, the autonomy of HEIs was diminished and a shift in power relationships between HEIs and schools was discernible (McNamara Webb, and Brundrett 2013:653).

2.1.3 ITE under the microscope

The beginnings of these regulated constraints for ITE were not confined to the staffing and curriculum of HEIs but gained ground over the next decade to include the quality of provision through regulatory inspections by OFSTED of those HEIs providing ITE

(McNamara et al., 2013:653). In a move to respond to 'perceived' publicly expressed concerns about the quality of ITE (Hill, 2002:4), ITE came under the microscope with a series of 'primary sweeps' which were carried out by the Office of Standards in Education (OFSTED) between 1995-6 who reported that the quality of provision in HEIs and Colleges was generally good in primary however less so in secondary (McNamara et al., 2013:653).

In an example of another significant 'policy flourish' the Conservative government strengthened their control in the setting up of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) which was enshrined in the Education Act of 1994. As a result of this Act, the TTA was established as a corporate body whose aim was to 'contribute to the raising of standards in teaching' (Education Act 1994). This included 'securing the involvement of schools in all courses and programmes for the initial training of schoolteachers' (ibid) reinforcing the partnership agenda set out by CATE. To procure this involvement, providers of ITE now saw their income reduced as a percentage of their funding was redirected away from the HEIs into school partnerships to support ITE (Hill, 2002:24). This shift of control from CATE as an advisory body to the government to the TTA as a corporate body appointed by the Secretary of State for Education was an important step in gaining a foothold, some control in the organisation of ITE. As McNamara et al. (2013:653) comment, by 1992 this increased involvement in the preparation of future teachers and the emphasis on this as a joint venture between schools and HEIs resulted in 'School based training' and 'partnership' being the catch phrases promoted by Kenneth Clarke, the then Secretary State for Education.

At the same time as establishing the TTA, the Conservative government introduced two alternative routes into teaching, the Articled Teacher Scheme (ATS) and the Licensed Teacher Scheme (LTS). At the same time as establishing the TTA, the Conservative government introduced two alternative routes into teaching. Both introduced in 1989 and both predominantly based in school, The Licenced Teacher Scheme (LTS) heralded the beginning of the school based approach to ITE. The LTS was 'a radical departure' (Furlong et al., 1996:54) from previous routes into teaching and offered mature candidates with a minimum of two years in higher education direct entry into a teaching position with training on the job. While the ATS followed the same on the job approach to ITE, it offered a PGCE qualification on completion of a 2 year extended PGCE (Galvin, 1994: 132). These two routes were launched ostensibly 'with a view to (widening) and (diversifying) the pool of applicants into teaching (McNamara et al., 2017:7). However, this was another move which gave the opportunity for more involvement in the management of ITE. For the first time the preparation of future teachers was not reliant on attending a University or College: the recommendation for QTS was awarded under licence by a school or LEA for candidates who fulfilled specific criteria (Lawlor, 1990:11). With this move to establish another provider of ITE the beginnings of neoliberalism were emerging and the expansion of routes into teaching was underway. HEIs and Colleges who had previously held the monopoly on this award were now facing competition. The emergence of neoliberalism and its importance in relation to the impact on ITE is critiqued in section 2.1.4. Despite these moves by the government to steer HEIs and Colleges towards being more accountable and competitive, the role of HEIs and Colleges in the preparation of future teachers continued to be under public scrutiny. An independent report by Shelia Lawlor, the head of the independent think tank The

Centre for Policy Studies in 1990 launched a ‘blistering attack on the way teachers are trained in Britain’ (Orchard and Winch, 2015: 2). The report questioned the legitimacy of educational theory and knowledge in ITE and proposed a vision of teaching which was more in line with an apprenticeship model, training in the workplace, (ibid). As this theory and knowledge was at the core of the curriculum provided by HEIs and Colleges, their role in ITE was challenged. The impact of this will be explored in section 2.2 of this thesis.

These policy flourishes were regarded by some as a move by government to seize the control from HEIs and Colleges and to monitor ITE (Whitty, 2006):4. McNamara et al. (2013 :650) agree with this emphasising that this move signalled a period of sustained and intense reforms in both the content and the ‘regulation of primary ITE in England’ (ibid) through a series of policy flourishes which politicised ITE (McNamara et al., 2013: 652). In an example of what Lipsky (1980) defines as ‘street level bureaucrats’ (Lipsky, 2010:11) universities and Colleges providing ITE were now ‘rigidly controlled’ (Hill, 2001:137) required by an act of law to comply with a series of criteria. These criteria included clear partnership arrangements with schools for both the recruitment and training of teachers. According to Lipsky (2010:11), these ‘street level bureaucrats,’ those professionals who are left to mediate between the old and the new policy, now had to implement and carry out those actions embedded within policy required by government. Hill (2002:13) suggests that this was a significant point in the shift from the autonomy of Universities and Colleges providing teacher education courses and contributed to what Furlong et al. (2008:307) determine ‘a period of intense struggle’ between the government and HEI over the following decade.

Ball (2017) is not alone in the conceptualisation of 'policy flourishes,' those small moves to describe the evolution of education reform over successive years, particularly in relation to ITE. Hill (2002:2) asserts that the Conservative governments of 1979 -97 transformed ITE implementing a range of new approaches to teacher education based on a neoliberal ideology: this will be explored in more detail in section 2.1.4. These new approaches embedded the key principles of privatisation, marketisation and diversification (Whitty, 2006; Power and Halpin, 1998). These market forces became a constant mantra of successive Conservative and New Labour governments reflecting the liberal ideologies of the time and resulting (see section 2.1.4) in breaking the 'professional monopolies' (Hill, 2002;2) held by higher education professionals. These professional monopolies are exemplified in HEIs being (at that time) the sole providers of a future teaching profession through the provision of undergraduate and post graduate routes into teaching (Whitty, 2014: 437).

Furlong (2013a:44) points out there has been significant growth of alternative routes into teaching in English schools over the past 20 years. He argues that the move towards these alternative routes into teaching is not a new concept. In the 1960s the established route for becoming a teacher had been through registration with a College of Education (Keating, 2010). Over subsequent decades to the present day the award is currently formalised as Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), recognised by the (then) NCTL (Whitty, 2014; Furlong 2013b), an executive agency of the Department for Education (DfE). Generally, QTS is awarded as part of a range of teaching routes validated as programmes of study by a University that provides ITE (Pitfield and Morrison, 2009:20). It is the provider who informs the Teaching Regulation Agency (formerly the NCTL) when the trainee has completed the programme. While this route

has continued to be available and has provided a significant number of Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs), prior to 1988 there were only two graduate routes of entry into teaching, the Higher Education Institution (HEI) based B.Ed and PGCE courses (Keating, 2010). However, there have been other routes introduced particularly by successive Labour governments between 1998 and 2009 (Whitty, 2014:470). These other routes include undergraduate programmes of study (BA/BSc with QTS), post graduate routes (PGCE) provided by HEIs but also include alternatives routes which are non HEI based for example 'Teach First.' It is these employment-based routes which signal the breaking of these professional monopolies which Hill (2002) refers to.

Gardener (2013:39) comments that these non HEI based routes have been advancing and the apparent shift from locating ITE in HEIs into schools has more recently been at an increasing pace in line with new educational policy. In essence, as a result of government legislation most notably the White Paper (DfE, 2010), schools have been authorised to take more control of teacher training as part of a long-term plan to move in favour of school-centred initial teacher training as opposed to the more established routes provided by HEIs (ibid). At the time of writing in 2019 there are a range of routes into teaching which offer both postgraduate with QTS and QTS only qualifications. Currently there are three main graduate routes into teaching: the SD route which is school- led training run by a lead school, the established Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which is based in HEI, and SCITT programmes run by a consortium of schools and colleges (Association of Graduate Careers Advisory Service (AGCAS), 2019).The impact of Hill's (2002) ideology of neoliberalism on

education specifically in relation to the reform of ITE could be considered insightful when reflecting upon the landscape of ITT currently.

Interestingly the development of alternative routes into teaching is not exclusive to England. In an indication of the global nature of this move and one which resonates with Morris' (2012) model of policy borrowing the 'Teach First' route into teaching had its origins in the 'Teach for America' model of training teachers (Teach First, 2019). This model of training teachers as part of the government's continuing remit to raise standards in education was situated in areas of inner-city deprivation and educational need as a result of the 'No Child left behind' legislation (Walsh and Backe, 2013:594). The influence of globalisation on the reform of ITE will be critiqued in section 2.1.5 of this chapter.

2.1.4 Neoliberal ideology and its impact on the reform of ITE

It is important to explain how this ideology of neoliberalism impacts on education and specifically the reform of ITE. As an ideology, neoliberalism is not new and in relation to education reform has been evident globally in a range of countries with diverse cultural and political histories (Ball, 2012:25). According to Metcalfe (2017) neoliberalism dates back to the 1930s and the concept is attributed to Friedrich Hayek as a way of reordering society in terms of enterprise and market forces. Nowadays the term is currently considered a derisory term (Rodick, 2017:2), assigning responsibility to organisations for allowing the ideology of market-based enterprise to take control of the management of public sector (Furlong, 2013a; Ball, 2016). Harvey (2005, cited in Sleeter, 2008: 1947) defines neoliberalism as:

> a theory of political economic practices that mean well-being can be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedom and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade.

In short, neoliberalism reworks the idea of liberalism, of individual rights and freedom and seeks to replace public services in favour of free market capitalisation by enabling private enterprise as opposed to regulating it. The nature of these political practices according to Shamir (2008:3) can be regarded as 'unstable and even contradictory' in which neoliberalism results in a neoliberal economy, one which encourages opportunity and competition and advocates against discrimination and market surplus (Shamir, 2008, Dunn, 2017). As a result, governments who embrace neoliberalism as a political ideology set out to enable markets as opposed to regulating them.

In the 1980s neoliberalism emerged as the 'dominant paradigm of public policy in the west' (Peters, 2012:135) and public services went through a period of streamlining and reforming as they were often replaced with private enterprise (Peters, 2012; Dunn, 2017). This private enterprise according to Sleeter (2008:1947) often results in the weakening of 'public political participation' (ibid). Neoliberalism (in relation to education) is 'multi-faceted, complex and adaptive' (Slater, 2015:1) and this dominant paradigm (Peters, 2012) was put into practice as a result of crises which have been both naturally occurring and created (Slater, 2015:1). Slater (2015) posits that it is the actions of government upon these components of crises which lead to reform. These

crises according to Friedman (2002, cited in Slater, 2015:2) act as an accelerant for changing and developing policies and it is this change, this reform of existing policies to confront and resolve these crises which is manifested in relation to the political ideas of the day. It is here that the ideology of neoliberalism is realised in the educational policy reform of that time.

More recently, Dunn (2017) challenges the use of the term neoliberalism arguing that the use of this term is varied across a range of practices and that it has become overused and ambiguous, 'a catch all category…applied to a vast range of phenomena' (Dunn, 2017:1). Despite Dunn's challenge the impact of neoliberal ideology can be shown to have had an impact on education and consequently on ITE through successive governments in England and Wales between 1979 and present day. Furthermore, Avalos (2001, cited in Sleeter, 2008:1948) suggests that neoliberalism in education results in two (competing agendas) both concerned with raising standards. The first agenda is that of focussing on the quality of teaching in poor communities and the second is preparing children to take part in an increasingly competitive globalised economy. In reviewing one example of an alternative route into teaching, the 'Teach first' route provides an illustration of conforming with the first of Avalos' (2001) two agendas. In this route into teaching, graduates are recruited to a programme which aims to bring outstanding teachers to inner city areas stating that 'it only takes one brilliant teacher to change a child's life' (Teach First, 2018).

In an example of Morris' (2012) logic rooted in ideology, Furlong (2013a:28) expands on the work of Hill (2002) in agreeing that neoliberal ideology, the set of beliefs of the governing political party about the preparation of future teachers resulted in the need

for reform of ITE. This set of beliefs then forms the basis of these new approaches to ITE. Slater (2014:15) and Menter (2013:40) go further to comment that these are attacks on teaching and more specifically the Institutions which prepare future teachers. Furthermore, in another example of Peters' (2012:12) dominant ideology of the West, these new approaches for the preparation of future teachers as a result of neoliberal reform of ITE, are not solely attributed to the educational system of England and Wales. The impact of neoliberalism can be seen across the globe with examples of reform in initial teacher education in the USA (Halpin and Troyna, 1995:310), parts of Europe and South America (Olssen, and Peters, 2012:339). It therefore follows that just as the impact of neoliberalism can be seen across the globe, the resulting policies of educational reform across the West can also be seen as these are adopted and adapted in what Morris (2012:89) and Halpin and Troyna (1995:310) identify as policy borrowing, looking to those other countries who have successful teacher reform and 'borrowing' their methods. This practice of 'looking to other countries' (Assessment and Qualifications Alliance (AQA), 2018) for successful approaches to teacher reform has, according to Morris (2012:90), become a way of validating major (educational) reform selected by a government according to their political ideology. Echoing Slater's (2015:4) 'naturally occurring and created crises,' Phillips and Ochs (2003:456) observe that two preconditions are necessary which prompt major educational reform and result in policy borrowing. The first condition is that something is inadequate or ineffective which results in a major governmental programme and the second being that there is then consensus within the government about the solution. While caution is urged in transferring successful features of one country's schooling system to another on the grounds of cultural contexts for example, Morris (2012:90) states that 'think tanks and consultancies have been active in a

search to identify the practices that can be borrowed from successful systems.' What is becoming evident here is that these wide scale educational policies are not *in themselves* (my italics) attacks on HEIs. However, in providing a range of alternative routes into teaching and moving the location of the preparation of future teachers in these routes out of HEIs and into the workplace, one of the key principles of the market forces paradigm, that of competition (Brown and Lauder 1991:12), was launched in the domain of ITE.

While this form of marketisation could be attributed to the Conservative governments between 1979 and 1997, there is some debate that the Labour governments of 1997 – 2009 did little to overturn or repeal these reforms to ITE. Indeed the 'Third way,' New Labour's political ideology, was regarded by some not merely as a continuation of Conservative government policy but as an extension. Mahony and Hextall (2000, cited in Furlong, 2005:123) comment that Tony Blair the then Labour leader and Prime Minister between 1997-2007, was fully committed to privatisation, deregulation and the marketisation of the welfare state, like his Conservative predecessor. One example of this continued commitment to free market capitalisation, a feature of neoliberalism is the 'Teach First' route into teaching launched in 2002. This school- led route into teaching was reported as being funded by approx. 63% of funds from government grants and contracts (Teach First 2019). Consequently, the political ideology of the 'Third Way' set out to continue the notion of market driven economics balanced with an emphasis on a modified welfare system that helped its citizens help themselves. Furlong (2005:123) suggests that while there was a new vision, this vision built on the educational policy implemented by the earlier Conservative government. So, while the policy narrative was reworked the policy trajectory of the reform of ITE continued.

Gilroy (1998:223) argues that the top down policies which were a feature of the attacks on the teaching professions as a result of previous Conservative government reforms continued. One striking example was the continued government funding of the TTA which sent 'a powerful signal to teacher educators' (ibid) in HEIs that the future of ITE in HEIs was problematic and for some untenable (Gilroy, 1998: 223)

2.1.5 Globalisation in ITE

While Furlong (2013a) agrees with Hill (2002) that neoliberal ideology is the basis of these new approaches to ITE, he expands on this by suggesting that the reform of ITE has become inextricably linked with globalisation. In support of Furlong, Burbules and Torres (2000, cited in Ball, Dworkin and Vryonides, 2010:524), comment that the result of neoliberal ideologies across the globe indirectly imposes particular policies for 'teacher training, curriculum, instruction and training.' According to Carnoy (2016:28) as countries seek to increase trade and develop other opportunities on a global stage the desire to outperform each other inevitably leads to a focus on higher educational attainment. This in turn leads to a reform of education policies that enhance its economy and global competitiveness (Furlong, 2013a: 46). Mundy et al. (2016 :370) comments further on this by situating this inextricable link in the capacity for a nation's economic growth.

Furthermore, the recognition of being a world class nation is related to the ideology of a nation's government across a range of social values which include education. Here the impact of globalisation in ITE becomes more explicit. Over the past three decades, the rate and pace of global competition in areas of social justice and social cohesion for example has meant that education has come under intense scrutiny (Slater, 2015; Furlong, 2013a). Global states demand certain skills and creative approaches for

global economy and, in the drive to achieve this world class status, governments are driven to conform to other world class global states which are outperforming them. This in turn becomes a driver for educational change (Ball et al, 2010). In an example which validates the concept of policy borrowing (Morris, 2012), national states engaged in global discourses look to the policies and practices of other successful countries for solutions to raising standards in education in an attempt to compete globally. As Marginson (2008:292) states:

> The tendency for the state in the new competitive global environment is to focus on educational policies that enhance its economy's global competitiveness.

Educationally, nations participate in a range of competitive measures to assess the global standards through the OECD (Furlong 2013a:29). These global standards in education are reported by The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) which is a forum for 34 countries working together to improve economic and social well-being (McKenzie, Santiago, Sliwka and Hiroyuki, 2005). As Klees (2020:3) comments, the need for the reform of teacher education arises from a number of these different 'intersecting and overlapping global discourses.' This inextricable link to the globalisation of education features heavily in the White Paper (DfE, 2010), 'The importance of teaching' (DfE, 2010). Here education policy is viewed primarily from an economic point of view (Ball 2012) and linked with global competitiveness. In the introduction by the (then) Prime minister David Cameron and

the Deputy Prime Minister Nick Clegg, being part of a world class education system is emphasised heralding the importance of the education system in England (and Wales) contributing to the countries performance on the world stage:

> So much of the education debate in this country is backward looking: have standards fallen? have exams got easier? these debates will continue, but what really matters is how we're doing compared with our international competitors (2010:3 DfE).

Here is further evidence of Morris' 'logic rooted in history' whereby a change in policy by the Conservative led Coalition government in 2010 echoed the approach by New Labour in 2007. According to Ball (2015), this emphasis by the (then) Coalition government on world class schools and world class education is linked with a return to what was perceived by the Coalition government as the values of good education. This good education is grounded on the quality of its teachers (the White Paper DfE 2010) and therefore the preparation of these teachers and the White Paper (DfE 2010) sets out unequivocally the continued reform of ITE. 'The first and most important lesson is that no education system can be better than the quality of its teachers' (2010:3 DfE).

In echoes of the 1990s previously highlighted, the core message that the quality of education in any one nation is particularly reflected in the quality of its teachers is still pertinent in educational policy (Cochran-Smith, 2015: xii). As Finn (2017:168) comments the imperative for any government 'is the education of our young people'

and consequently, focusing on the preparation of future teachers has become a priority for governments around the world (Furlong, 2013a; Sleeter, 2008; Ball, 2016).

2.1.6 The Importance of teaching

The White Paper (DfE, 2010) 'signals a radical reform of (English) schools' (DfE, 2010:4) and continued the agenda of a number of successive governments to raise standards in education (Maguire, 2014:782). It established that the quality of teachers in England is integral to the agenda of raising standards in education by highlighting the importance of bringing these standards in line with the high educational standards set in a number of other countries (DfE, 2010:8). These global standards in education are reported by a number of 'powerful and very persuasive agents and organisations' (Ball, 2016:1047) who validate and propagate the ideology of (in this case) neoliberal reform (Ball, 2016; Klees, 2020), for example the OECD. To further emphasise that the key indicators of a world class education system were both a key priority and embedded in the legislation, the (then) education minister Michael Gove in 2011 stated that a move towards (more) classroom based teacher training was a 'growing trend among world-leading education systems' (Gove, 2011). However, the acceptance of these global benchmarks as evidence to initiate wide scale educational policy reform is challenging. Morris (2012:94) urges caution as these reports are quantitative focusing on the outcomes of the educational system through test results as opposed to the pedagogy and curricula. Citing Alexander (2010), Morris (2012:94) emphasises it is the 'how' these top performing countries achieve global outcomes that is important to analyse before initiating large scale reform.

The White Paper (DfE, 2010) goes much further than previous government policies in reforming education in an aim to raise standards. As I set out in section 1.3 to fulfil this aim, the White Paper (DfE, 2010) set out a number of measures which increased the roles in the preparation of future teachers for outstanding schools (DfE, 2010:3 para 2). Furthermore, good/outstanding schools have been given more autonomy in key areas of recruitment and training at a graduate level. This move added more weight to the ongoing debate about who should be training these 'top graduates' that is to say those who have a 2:1 in key subjects for a career in teaching and signalled a reform of ITE and consequently a change in the power relationships between schools and universities as a result of alternative routes into teaching such as SD. It could be suggested that in relation to ITE, a key message of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) is that Universities who prior to the new millennium had traditionally been responsible for these key areas would no longer be providing and setting the agenda for ITE. Ellis and Spendlove (2020:952) observe that schools will now become providers of ITT in direct competition with HEI and funding would move from the accredited provider, the University, to the school. Schools would be in the 'driving seat' dictating what they, the schools, wanted to purchase from the provider, the HEI (Whiting et al., 2018:72). This suggests that this decision to give schools more autonomy and to increase student teachers' time spent in schools will have a significant impact on the organisation of teacher education for both HEIs and schools. The impact of neoliberal ideology is visible in reforms since 1992 to the present day and the marketisation of ITE would appear to be well underway.

This section has critiqued aspects of the reform of ITE embedded in a range of policies and practice by successive governments from 1992 -the present day. It has

highlighted that there have been mandated changes in key areas of recruitment and training which have led to the opportunity for schools to take the lead in some areas of ITE. These developments have been influenced by a neoliberal ideology which has influenced policy changes in an attempt to raise standards. These high standards in education have become increasingly significant as a result of the emergence and development of the global economy. The section has identified that the culmination of the reforms of ITE heralded in the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) could signal that ultimately the provision of ITE is envisaged as being school- led as opposed to HEI led. Section 2.2 of this thesis will now critique how partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools are evolving to meet the requirements of government legislation for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, in relation to RQ3 of this thesis, the impact of this legislation on the roles of HEIs and schools will be explored.

Theme two: The evolving nature of Partnerships between HEIs and schools

2.2.1 Introduction to theme two

In chapter 1 of this thesis I have commented on the expansion of University and school-based partnerships in ITE. The political background to this expansion, outlined in theme 1 of chapter 2, sets the scene for the permitting circumstances in which schools were given the opportunity to take the lead in training future teachers. This opportunity was launched in the White Paper (DfE 2010), and it is this model of SD which is located in the PGCE route of ITT that is the vehicle for the research in this

thesis. In this section I will now outline the development of partnerships between HEIs and schools from legislation in 1992 to the present day. The significance of this development and the evolving nature of these partnerships in response to government legislation will be established. Theme two will explore the disparate nature of partnerships and consider the complexities for HEIs of defining and sustaining partnership models in ITE over successive governments each having varied political ideologies. Embedded in this evolution are the implications of school-led routes of future partnerships between schools and ITT which links with RQ1 and RQ3 in this thesis. The theme will highlight how the balance of partnership has changed between HEIs and schools over successive years and led to shifting power relationships between the two. With this shift in power relationships comes a shift in roles and responsibilities for HEIs and schools in both the composition and the delivery of the curriculum for ITE. This analysis will consider how these differing perspectives, and often polarised views, pose challenges in negotiating the role of HEIs in ITE. The political timeline set out in theme 1 of this chapter established that ITE in England and Wales inevitably reflected the assumptions about teaching of the government of the day and that the different approaches to the governance of teacher education mirror these assumptions (Beauchamp et al., 2013:2). It is important to note that political devolution has brought about different approaches to the management of teacher education across the UK. Consequently, the analysis of the impact of government legislation on key areas of partnership will refer only to England, particularly in references to alternative routes into teaching post 2010 which includes the introduction of the SD model of ITT.

2.2.2 Partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools:

Partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools in England for the preparation of teachers in England are not new: informal partnership arrangements have been in place for decades (Brown, Rowley and Smith, 2016:5). McNamara et al., (2013:657) observe that as early as 1944 the McNair Report (cited in McNamara et al., 2013:657) recognised the importance of partnerships between HEI and school in the preparation of future teachers. Subsequently, Furlong et al., (1996:46) comments that developing partnerships between (at that time) Universities or Colleges and schools had been a key feature of teacher education reform since the 1980s. Collaborative partnerships consisted of a period of formal study in University or College and a teaching practice in schools (Furlong et al., 1996: 48).

In practice, by the early 1980s many providers of ITE had readily embraced opportunities to develop collaborative partnerships for the preparation of future teachers following the recommendations of the DES publication Teaching Quality (DES, 1983). In spite of this, it was not until 1992 a decade later that validated partnerships between HEIs and schools became a requirement of government for the preparation of future teachers in England and Wales (Furlong et al., 2008: 309). These validated partnerships became enshrined in legislation and the requirements were set out in two significant publications, circular 9/92 secondary (Circular 9/92, DfEE 1992) and circular 9/93 primary (Circular 9/93, DfEE, 1993). These two circulars determined that the provision of ITE courses were to be a partnership between schools and HEIs. HEIs and schools would now ‘exercise a joint responsibility in the planning, management, and delivery of courses (DFE, 1992: para 14) by means of a

curriculum for ITE which would be underwritten by government defined competences devised as a basis for setting the standards of this joint responsibility (Brooks, 2006:3). Rooted in circular 9/92 and 9/93 was the strengthening of school-based practice in ITE. The length of school- based practice outlined in the circulars was established and still is predicated on the route into teaching that a student teacher is pursuing (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:65). This follows the requirements for validation set out by CATE in 1989 (see section 2.1.2). Consequently, teaching practice, that is the school-based practice element of the course, became 'an integral part of the training' (Price and Willett, 2006:34). While the requirement of a substantial element of school-based practice as part of ITE is not in itself surprising, the consequences of the stipulation of joint responsibility are. These will be explored in section (2.2.4). It has already been stated in chapter 1 of this thesis that the established model of ITE prior to this point was one in which tutors from HEIs supervised this teaching practice. Hence it is important to point out that as collaborative partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools evolved over time the balance of the joint roles and responsibilities changed particularly in the domain of school-based practice through what Edwards and Mutton (2007:506) describe as 'delicately negotiated' arrangements between the two stakeholders. As a result of circulars 9/92 and 9/93 it was now the schools as opposed to HEIs who took the lead in mentoring and assessment of students and by 2007 the process of assessing student teachers had developed further and was set against defined competences stipulated by the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) formerly the TTA in the form of 'standards' for the award of QTS (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:65). Furlong et al. (2000:79) proposed that the view of collaborative partnership promoted through this statutory move was largely organisational, an agreement between two

parties who had a shared agenda in the preparation of good teachers (Edwards and Mutton, 2007:05). Furthermore, Furlong et al., (2000:80) concluded that the status quo remained generally unchanged in these initial stages and there was little variation in the roles and responsibilities of HEIs and schools: this resonates with my experience outlined in chapter 1 of this thesis. HEIs were the drivers of the partnership and in the main delivered the theoretical constructs of teaching which included theory, subject knowledge and research-informed conceptions of pedagogy (Brown et al., 2016 :11). Alternatively, schools provided the context through school-based practice for student teachers to be assessed against the teaching standards for the award of QTS (McNamara et al., 2013:657). The development of effective partnership models between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers in the new millennium was not only an important aspect of the reform of ITE in England but was also a key aspect of ITE across the four nations of the UK and internationally (Ayres, 2014: Christie, Donoghue, Kirk, McNamara, Menter, Moss, Noble-Rogers, Oancea, Rogers and Thomson, 2013:2). In examining new partnership models between universities and schools in New Zealand Burn (2006:244) commented on 'the variety of new providers and relationships' which arose as a result of the deregulation of ITE in the new millennium. Alternatively, in the United States Walsh and Backe (2013:596) comment on the shifting impetus and expansion of models of university/school partnerships as a result of the 'No child left behind' legislation in 2001. Yet while this could suggest that these examples of locally agreed partnerships were a feature of evolving partnerships globally, Burn (2006) and Walsh and Backe (2013) critique these in the context of the deregulation of ITE and the decentralisation of partnership models in these countries. This appears to be in stark contrast to the

mandated partnership requirements of ITE in England through a series of government interventions.

2.2.3 The dominance of HEIs

Despite the maintenance of a generally unwavering status quo between HEIs and schools, it could be argued that the significance of these reforms is not solely about creating a more specific set of requirements to improve the quality of ITE through the mandatory requirement of partnership. While these moves were ostensibly fulfilling successive government agendas from the 1990s to present day to address this, Brooks (2006:3) proposes that circulars 9/92 and 9/93 were a move by the Conservative government to 'curb the dominance of HEIs.' By situating more ITE in schools this curtailed and, in effect, limited the control of HEIs in the preparation of future teachers. Significantly as a result of subsequent policies by successive governments, Price and Willett (2006) comment that since 1992 the requirement for HEIs and schools to work in partnership together to deliver ITE has intensified (Price and Willett, 2006:34). Similarly, from the early 1990s to present day, alternative routes into ITE have been 'slowly gaining ground' (Furlong, 2013b:5). Douglas (2012:3) argues that a significant number of schools in England have entered into a range of partnerships with local HEIs to deliver this variety of routes into teaching. This has resulted in a greater number of schools becoming increasingly linked with HEIs in supporting the preparation of future teachers (Price and Willett, 2006:37). At the time of writing, 20 years on from the Conservative neoliberal agenda of the 1990s, one of the key principles of the market forces discussed in section 2.1.3, is that competition in ITE has come to fruition. With the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010)

under the Coalition government and the introduction SD route into teaching the market driven approaches to ITT have continued (Beauchamp et al., 2013: 204) This has resulted in a range of agencies, HEIs or schools who are currently taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers, across a variety of programmes (Brown et al., 2016;5). Consequently, a recent report by the House of Commons committee of public accounts (House of Commons Committee of public accounts, 2016:6) suggested that the Department for Education (DfE) and the (then) NCTL have more to do to clarify the 'myriad of routes' into teaching now available for these potential recruits.

2.2.4 The challenge of effective partnerships

However, while the rhetoric of government through the reform of ITE was about increased partnership to improve the quality of provision in ITE (Furlong et al., 1996:42), there was little guidance or as to what constituted a partnership between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. As previously outlined in chapter 1 and re-emphasised in 2.1.2 of this chapter, despite many schools having generally good working relationship with HEIs prior to 1992, government reform of ITE resulted in partnerships where there was a lack of clarity about roles and responsibilities within the partnership (Husbands, 1996:12). As a result, across ITE the functions of the partnership and the roles adopted have generally evolved around those expectations expressed in government policies from the 1990s (Mutton and Butcher, 2008:1). In these early stages of formal partnership arrangements, the mandate of joint responsibility in key areas of recruitment, planning and assessment of student teachers meant that HEIs retained the overall responsibility for the organisation of the programme and for meeting the requirements for validation of the

programme (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:73). The school took a separate yet complementary role providing school-based mentors to support student teachers in the practice element of the programme situated in schools (Edwards and Mutton, 2007: 507). Consequently, in a return to Lipsky's theory of street level bureaucracy (see section 2.1.2, Lipsky, 2010: 4) HEIs and schools were left to mediate between the policy and the practice to negotiate a model of partnership which reflected the anticipated roles of successive Conservative governments that HEIs and school partners would take (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:74).

A further challenge for HEIs and schools was not only putting into practice the statutory requirements but in forming and establishing effective working partnerships (Brooks, 2006; Furlong et al., 1996; Ellis, 2006) with genuine participation between the stakeholders. Burns, Yendol-Hoppey and Jacobs (2015:56) maintain that the way a partnership operates is complex and is a result of the way the partnership is conceptualised between the participants. As such the identification of what constitutes an effective partnership is not straightforward. The original rhetoric of school-based partnership in England and Wales which was expressed in the circulars of the early 1990s was predicated on the assumption that there was a shared commitment between HEIs and schools towards training new teachers and that this would improve the quality of ITE (Edwards and Mutton, 2007; Furlong et al., 1996). However, this belief of a shared agenda for ITE was based on an understanding of professional learning which was founded on an interactionist account of learning (Edwards, 2005: 51): a complex approach to learning often termed learning through participation 'which characterises the kinds of dyadic relationships that characterise apprenticeship' (Edwards and Mutton 2007:505). Significantly the development of mandated and

more formal partnership arrangements coincided with the requirement of successive policies for an increase in the amount of school-based practice that ITE courses delivered (Brown et al., 2016:5). Yet these two requirements did not in themselves achieve the intention of improving the quality in the area of ITE (Furlong et al., 1996; Ng and Chan, 2012) and it remains debateable as to whether these moves to strengthen partnerships between HEIs and schools through partnerships resulted in the transformation of ITE that had been intended.

Ng and Chan (2012:39) describe this development of formal partnerships as a 'wave of collaboration between university faculty members and school teachers,' and furthermore observe that 'such a change required a new balance of power: universities had to relinquish their dominant position and school involvement was increased (Ng and Chan (2012:39). However, it is doubtful that in these early stages HEIs relinquished dominance or that their control was curbed. Furlong et al. (1996:43) queries the authenticity of this partnership and proposed that the initial stage of implementing government policy for HEIs and schools was at first more in line with integration as opposed to partnership, 'what they (teacher education courses in England and Wales) were aiming to integrate was the student's training experience in the HEI with the world of the school.' The integrationist model of partnership had its own challenges according to Brooks (2006:5) who concluded that there was little effort to combine the theoretical element of the curriculum in HEIs and the practical element of the school experience which left students having to make sense of the different elements of the provision. This early scepticism about the model of partnership supported findings published in a later paper by Furlong et al. (2000:9)

which was based on data from the second Modes of Teacher Education project (MOTE).

This project sought to document 'the changing relationship between HEIs and schools in the provision of initial teacher education' and identified three typical models of partnership. These models had their beginnings in the mid-1990s as a result of the new requirements for ITE and were characterised as 'collaborative partnership, HEI led partnership and separatist partnership' (Furlong et al., 2000:9). These models were seen be in a state of flux with no one model an entity in its own right (Furlong et al., 2000; McNamara et al., 2013) and a continuum of these partnership models was identified from HEI which led to the entirely school based and school-led SCITTS (School centred initial teacher training) (McNamara et al., 213:657). Additionally, because of differing interpretations of partnership between HEIs and schools it was argued that there was limited evidence of collaborative partnerships which in the main resulted in a partnership which was 'neither complementary nor collaborative' (Edwards, 2005:505). In practice Furlong et al. (2000:10) determined that by the mid-1990s fundamentally little had changed in the content of ITE and that the majority of partnerships were HEI led and generally administrative. Furlong et al. (ibid) observe that schools were more inclined to adopt this approach to partnership as the priority for the school and the capacity of their workload was focussed on pupil achievement not ITE (Furlong et al., 2000:10). As Furlong (2005:215) comments, 'a school's core business after all is that of teaching children.' It could be argued that allowing HEIs to organise the partnership fulfilled the statutory requirements but did not disrupt a school's priorities (Furlong et al., 2010:40).

This rather narrow view of the role of schools in ITE seemingly undervalues the contribution made by them to the partnership. This could be viewed as a false dichotomy of ITE which represents a division of labour (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:66) and one that challenges and undermines the value of HEI and school-based partnership in the preparation of future teachers (McGarr, O'Grady and Guilfoyle, 2017; Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010). Spendlove, Howes and Wake (2010:65) identify the continued tensions which are still evident between HEIs and schools in the preparation of future teachers. It appears that these tensions are situated in the complex nature of HEIs and schools working together where each participant is trying to establish their function in the partnership through 'differing roles' (Douglas, 2012:4) and mutual appreciation (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:74). According to Douglas (2012:4) it is the interpretation and fulfilment of these differing roles that present the greatest challenge in establishing effective partnerships between HEIs and schools. It could be argued that the balance of roles and responsibilities have largely been reassigned from HEIs to schools in key areas of ITE since the publications of circular 9/93 and 9/94 to the present day. Schools have taken an increasingly significant role in the preparation of future teachers, and across programmes in ITE currently take the lead in the assessment of QTS in consultation with university tutors. Additionally, it could be argued that those schools involved with the SD PGCE model of ITT, may have more control over designing the curriculum for ITE. Conversely in post graduate programmes, Murray (2008:28) comments that HEIs have seen a reduction in what she describes as their 'considerable power and professional and social responsibilities as gate keepers' (Murray, 2008:28) of the teaching profession in areas of recruitment and designing the curriculum for ITE. In short, the roles and

responsibilities in partnerships between HEIs and schools have been and remain to this day a challenge (Edwards 2007; Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010; Furlong et al., 2000). Brown et al. (2016:5) posit that currently these challenges are as a result of a multifaceted range of knowledge and practical opportunities across a range of models of ITT which exist for the preparation of teachers. Similarly, Smith, Brisard and Menter (2006:147) support and expand on this, emphasising partnership between HEIs and schools remains a 'dominant theme in current policy discussions.'

2.2.5 Differing roles and polarised views

The different roles of HEIs and schools could lead to a 'polarised view' of provision where School experience generally exemplifies the practical core tasks of the profession whereas HEIs strive to provide the theoretical underpinnings (Furlong et al., 2000; Edwards and Protheroe, 2003; Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010). In teaching programmes, the term 'praxis' (Arnold and Mundy, 2020:1) is often used to express this interrelationship between the theory of teaching and the practice which is described by White and Heslop (2012:34) as the 'theory/practice binary.' In what could be described as a symbiotic relationship, one could argue that schools provide the rich contextual experience for students to practise and hone their skills in the classroom and HEIs are significant in delivering the history, philosophy, psychology and sociology of education, the core elements of the ITE curriculum (Burgess, 2013:34). Furlong (2013c:8) suggest that HEIs support student teachers in their practical training by giving them the opportunity to question and challenge their own assumptions about the nature of teaching and this concurs with my own experience. In this environment student teachers are given space and time to reflect on theory and

engage in critical discourse about key educational issues for example curriculum design and teaching styles. Furlong (2013c:160) argues that it is challenging for schools to organise opportunities for this critical discourse to take place to this extent.

> The school is not a seminar- far from it. For the practising teacher responsible for teaching this curriculum to these children the imperative is to act. If teachers stopped to question everything they simply could not teach.

Furlong (ibid) suggests that teachers operating as teacher educators in their own school do not have the opportunity to stand back and deconstruct their teaching experiences with student teachers in a detached and impartial way. Their reflections are often spontaneous, based on their understanding of the best interests of the children in their class/school. Alternatively, their counterparts in HEI can remain neutral and disconnected from the teaching environment. This enables them to question practice, offer alternatives which can help their students evaluate and when necessary throw doubt on the efficacy of what they observe and practice' (Furlong, 2013c:133). As Murray and Mutton (2016:72) comment it is difficult to see how the move towards more school-led provision with its emphasis on learning in the classroom will empower students and give them the opportunity to 'engage critically with their own practice' (Myhill, 2015:25) through immersing them in current educational research which is the aim of education departments in HEIs.

2.2.6 School- led ITT

Interestingly with the emergence of SCITTs the discourse of ITE in the new millennium to this point had been largely identified as 'school centred.' However, the emergence of the new model of SD in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) shifted the discourse to 'school- led.' This term was subsequently adopted by the National College for Teachers and Leaders (NCTL) for both school centred and school-led and is at the core of their vision for the school system as a whole.

In 2014, the government commissioned an independent review to ascertain which core elements of teacher education contributed to high quality teachers (Carter, 2015). While this review of ITT in England continued to emphasise the importance of partnership between schools and HEIs it identified that the quality of provision in ITE was variable. However, the diversity of different training routes was seen as a strength and the report acknowledged that as a result of this diversity there was a 'shift in leadership from schools to universities' (Whiting et al., 2016: 10). Ayres (2014:10) asserts that this provision indicates that ITE 'in England is therefore delivered by a multiplicity of providers,' and signals a continuation of the market forces paradigm of the 1990s (Gewirtz, 2013:10) which has brought about a range of teacher education opportunities currently available for potential recruits into teaching to choose from (Whitty, 2013:21). As a result, as school-led courses gain ground across England with the introduction of the SD model, it could well be that it is the local needs of the partnerships rather than the 'educational principles' (Brown et al., 2016:5), the deeply held values and beliefs of the content of ITE which drives the content and structure of

the programme. This in turn results in a variety of diverse programmes across the country. As Brown et al. (ibid) comment:

> local market conditions rather than educational principles can determine the design of training models and how the composition of teacher preparation is shared across sites.

This provision of another route into teaching through SD and the sustained emphasis on more classroom-based training by successive government between 1992 and present day, emphasises further 'the political aspiration being to shift control away from universities and into schools' (McNamara and Murray, 2013:14). Consequently, the most recent initiative introduced in the White Paper (DfE, 2010), the SD initiative, sets out a model of ITT which is school-led and continues a trend of policy which supports the marginalisation of university input and the potential impact on the quality of the future teaching workforce (Florian and Pantić, 2013:4). Furthermore, it once again brings into question the commitment by successive governments to 'improve' ITE in England in emphasising opportunities for school- led ITT. In chapter 1 of this thesis and section 2.1.6 of this chapter, I commented that Coalition government believed that a move towards schools taking the lead in ITT was a feature of world class education systems. However, despite this assertion recent reports by OECD (2011) provide a range of evidence which establishes that the most successful school systems in the world have organised their approach to ITE which not only emphasises

the practicalities of teaching in schools but also preserve university-based provision. A publication by Universities UK (2015:6) reports findings by the OECD which maintain that the role of universities is crucial in the training of high-quality teachers. It outlines the commitment to continued investment in the role of universities and the value of research in teacher education in the most successful countries of Finland and China. In stark contrast to other internationally successful countries Gewirtz (2013) argues that the Coalition government of 2010-15 moved England away from this commitment to HEI involvement in teacher education in favour of school- led models of ITT.

2.2.7 The value of HEIs in ITE

Globally it would appear that the approaches to ITE are radically different (Gewirtz, 2013; Franchi, 2016). Consequently, there is a juxtaposition of models of ITE with other European counterparts who are part of the Bologna process and who favour registration on a university education course of four/five years (European Higher Education Area). The global landscape of provision in ITE is changing and what remains uncertain in the context of England despite these global comparisons, is the role of HEIs in ITE through future partnership arrangements with schools. This is as a consequence of a discernible shift in the role of HEIs in ITE, particularly in the area of critical analysis and reflection on professional values (Parker, 2015:108). It could be argued that this discernible shift has been made more conspicuous in recent speeches by the (then) education minister Michael Gove (2010:6). Gove used media and public speeches as opportunities to undermine and question the value of HEIs in ITE by suggesting that University lecturers, although qualified teachers themselves, may be

lacking in current pedagogy in schools and the application of this in practice. This suggestion was being promulgated despite evidence in support of current teacher education practices reported by a House of Commons Select Committee in 2010 and reiterated in 2012 (DfE, 2012). This report stated that England had 'some of the best qualified and some of the best trained teachers' (Whitty, 2014:472) and that HEIs were important in 'bringing rigour and status to ITT' (House of Commons Children, Schools and Families, 2010). The response by leading Higher Education academics was swift and consistent, criticising this policy and stating that there is an intentional shift of control in which Higher Education has reduced (their) influence and power in this area of ITE. For example, Bell (2015) writing in the Guardian in 2015, pointed out that this relocation of ITE from universities to schools 'has been motivated by an innate, ideological fixation that universities are Marxist hotbeds that inculcate new teachers with discredited, progressive notions.' Here Bell indicates that this intentional shift of control is not solely about the currency of university lecturers as up to date practitioners but more about how the government perceives the ideology and ethos of HEIs.

Murray and Passy (2014:493) also comment on the value of HEIs in ITE questioning the development of increased school-based and school- led training through recent government policy. While the emphasis on more time spent in the classroom suggests a more relevant classroom ready approach than that offered by HEIs it fails to give opportunities to reflect on recent research in key areas of child development and curriculum development (Murray and Passy, 2014:493). As Pseiser (2016:172) comments the value of teacher education has always been that teacher educators provide student teachers with 'the opportunities to ask what they and others consider

to be important and reflect on whether their actions mirror their beliefs.' This would imply that in positioning ITE in schools the government is doing more than giving student teachers the opportunity to spend more time 'on the job' (DfE, 2010:19). It gives credence to the voices of academics cited to this point that there is another, less transparent agenda in recent government reforms to ITE which is the downgrading of the role of HEIs in ITE. Menter (2013:7) highlights this further commenting on the 'government's apparent obsession with reducing or eliminating the university curriculum.' This examination of a reduced role for HEIs in ITE and the impact of this is complex and the rhetoric ongoing.

2.2.8 A return to the practical: an apprenticeship approach

In what Furlong and Lawn (2010:6) refer to as the 'turn to the practical,' Brown et al. (2016:11) maintain that teacher education in England is essentially moving towards 'a vocational, employment-based model of training' (ibid). Given the trajectory of the PGCE QTS in England since the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010), there seems to be evidence to suggest this might well be a government intention through the reform of ITE and a further indication of the diminution of the role of HEIs in ITE.

More than two decades on from the report by Lawlor in 1990 favouring an apprenticeship approach to ITE (see section 2.1.3), Gove (2013) endorsed the apprenticeship model he favours. With echoes of Hansot and Tyack's (1982) concept of a useable past (see section 2.1.2), his argument mirrored Lawlor's and once again emphasised the deregulation of the teaching profession through a marketisation of ITT which allowed schools designated as 'academies' to recruit graduates who did not

have any professional training as future teachers (Finn, 2017:167). This decision was an ideological approach, a hypothesis that more access to the best practitioners in outstanding schools would raise the quality of NQTs. 'The evidence shows that the best teacher training is led by teachers…the classroom is the best place for teachers to learn as well as to teach' (Gove, 2013). This view positions teacher training at post graduate level firmly in schools as opposed to in HEIs, under the assumption that this will give access to the best teachers and the best training: as yet this assumption has remained unchallenged (Furlong, 2013b; Beauchamp et al., 2013; Finn, 2017). Winch (2017:176) elaborates on this approach to the apprenticeship model in the context of ITE whereby the student teacher develops their understanding of teaching by locating themselves in the classroom rather than in the University. Under this model, a student would observe a skilled practitioner and take on responsibility of the job under guided supervision. They would develop their own understanding of what it means to be a teacher in a way that ensures 'that the systematic knowledge that underpins the practice of the occupation is used to maximum effect within the practice.' Ellis (2006:52) urges caution with the adoption of the apprenticeship model in relation to ITE. He concludes that this approach to ITE may result in the perpetuation of current and habitual ways of doing thing in any one school as opposed to developing 'an understanding of learning which can deal with knowledge creation at the levels of both individuals and systems in which they are operating.'

In this chapter I have presented the juxtaposition of government policy and its impact on ITE and the changing roles and responsibilities of HEIs and schools as a result of these policies and interventions. In theme one of the literature reviewed I critiqued changes in government policy in education between 1992 and present day which have

increasingly given schools the opportunity for more involvement in the preparation of future teachers. I have established that this has culminated in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) which has given schools further opportunities to make the decision to take the lead in ITT (see section 2.1.2) through the SD model of ITT. In theme two I outlined how schools have taken an increasingly significant role in the preparation of future teachers and considered if these changes in government policy had challenged the dominance of HEIs in the field of ITE. Furthermore, I have reflected on what impact the move to more formal and mandated partnerships has had on the reform of ITE. I suggested that partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools have evolved which has in turn impacted on partnership agreements between these two stakeholders (see 2.2.2 and section 2.2.4). As stated in section 2.2.5 of this chapter, while the body of literature presented so far supports these differing roles and polarised views, there is a need for a more in-depth study of the evolving partnerships between HEIs and schools and the roles each of these stakeholders fulfils in the preparation of future teachers. The body of available research primarily focusses on evaluating the partnership between schools and universities in a range of contexts and is generally written from the perspective of HEIs (Ledoux and McHenry, 2008:156; Kirk, 2013: 23). As a result, there appears to be little research which gives a voice to the schools, particularly primary schools, and reflects upon their perspectives of partnership and the roles that school and university take in ITE. In this thesis a key aim of the research is to give this voice to a group of HTs to enable them to explore their perceptions of ITE and to establish why they would take this decision to take the lead in ITT having been given this opportunity as a result of recent government legislation. Consequently, in chapter 3 I will propose that a HTs' values, beliefs and perceptions of ITE could be

perceived as fundamental to their decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers.

Chapter 3: A disposition to take the lead in ITT: the significance of personal histories and power relations.

3.1 Introduction to the chapter

While chapter 2 contextualises the study in a chronology of changes in government policy for ITE from 1992 – to the publication of the White Paper 'The Importance of Teaching' (DfE, 2010), chapter 3 provides the theoretical context of this thesis exploring the less tangible concepts of personal histories, social collaboration and power relations between stakeholders in ITE. As in chapter 2, chapter 3 will be divided into two sections with each section representing one of two key themes which have originated from an iterative process of data collection and data analysis (see chapter 4 of this thesis). Each section will be organised under the headings of each theme: theme one section 3.1, theme two section 3.2 and so forth.

Creating the permitting circumstances and opportunities for HTs to take the lead in ITT does not necessarily result in these opportunities being taken up and consequently

the focus of literature reviewed in chapter three of this thesis will offer a theoretical analysis of how the personal histories of the HTs in this study form a basis for making the decision to take the lead in ITT . **The relevance of beliefs, perception and values in decision** making is informed by the work of Bourdieu (1990) and the literature critiqued will explore that it is an individual's habitus, the values, beliefs and perceptions borne out of these personal histories and collaboration within a variety of social structures which impact on HTs' decision to take the lead in ITT. It is significant to note that throughout themes 2.1, 2.2 and 3.1 I allude to power relations between the stakeholders in the field of ITE which have been identified in this study (government, HEIs and schools). It is therefore pertinent to critique the relevance of power relation to the perceptions, values and beliefs of HTs choosing to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT and critique to what extent these power relations underpin the narrative of the HTs in my research. Consequently, in the concluding theme of the literature reviewed for this thesis, **Power relations between stakeholders in ITE,** the literature presented critiques to what extent these power relations underpin the narrative of the HTs in my research who made the decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. This theme explores the concept of power relations which is informed by the writings of Ball (2012) and his interpretation of the later work of the French philosopher Foucault. Using the work of Foucault as the basis for my argument I will suggest that power relations between these stakeholders are relational and that meanings which inform the preparation of future teachers arise out of these relations and are co-constructed. Reflecting the three themes in the literature reviewed in chapter 2 and 3, I will critique the significance of power relations in policy, of shifting power relations in the evolving nature of partnerships between HEIs and schools and the relevance of

power relation to the perceptions, values and beliefs of HTs choosing to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT .

Theme one: The relevance of beliefs, perception and values in decision making

3.1.1 Introduction to theme one

Chapter two of the literature reviewed has highlighted the reform and development of ITE and the political ideologies which gave rise to this reform and established how partnership agreements between HEIs and schools evolved in response to government legislation over this period. In theme one of chapter three I will now explore HTs' perceptions of ITE and how these perceptions influence this decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers through the SD model of ITT (see section 1.8). This correlates with RQ1 of this research, 'For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model?' and RQ2, 'How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school -led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?'

In this theme I will suggest that HTs' values, beliefs and perceptions of ITE could be perceived as fundamental to their decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. I will establish the importance of using a theoretical framework to explain this social behaviour and I will then frame my hypothesis with reference to the work of Bourdieu (1990), specifically his understanding of structure and agency and his

conceptualisation of this through habitus. In my critique of the concept of habitus and its associated concepts of field and cultural capital (Reed-Danahay, 2005:155) I will outline how these concepts can form the basis of thoughts and actions by an individual based on their understanding of the world in which they live. Consequently, these thoughts and actions evolve and mature to form histories which are developed further as result of collaboration within the social structure in which these are being made. I will suggest that it in the light of this it is conceivable that it is an individual's habitus, the values, beliefs and perceptions borne out of these personal histories, which are significant in this thesis. Furthermore, I will analyse how the habitus, personal histories and collaboration within a variety of social structures impact on HTs' decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT.

3.1.2 The importance of a theoretical framework in exploring the decision to take the lead in ITT

Government legislation in England has given more authority to schools for the preparation of future teachers. At the time of writing this thesis, this includes taking the lead in PGCE routes of ITT by way of the model of SD. In the pilot study for this thesis (see section 5.2) I interviewed three HTs to establish why they chose to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by means of the SD route. A preliminary analysis of these data as part of my research design suggested that personal and deeply held beliefs, values and perceptions of the HTs could be significant. These beliefs, values and perceptions appeared to be dynamic, ever changing and were constructed over a period of time and from a range of experiences. Capturing and explaining this

behaviour of the HTs was daunting because as Ajzen (1991:179) comments, explaining 'human behaviour in all its complexity is a difficult task.' Craib (2015: 19) offers a possible solution to this challenge by explaining that the intangible (here the HTs' beliefs and values) needs to be rooted in a theoretical framework. Consequently, further reading led me to conclude that a framework or paradigm in the domain of social theory could be utilised. According to Craib (2015: 19), social theories are frameworks which are used to examine social occurrences and explain social behaviour in the real world, essentially social theories help the researcher to theorise and explain everyday life of ordinary people. It is this interpretation of social theory which links directly with my study, specifically RQ1, 'For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school- led ITT by way of the School Direct model?' and RQ2, 'How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school- led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?' In my thesis it is Bourdieu's interpretation of structure and agency conceptualised in his 'primary thinking tools' (Bourdieu in Wacquant, 1988:5, cited in Rawolle and Lingard, 2008:739), specifically habitus and the associated concepts of field and cultural capital, which resonate with the idea of HTs choosing to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. It is my interpretation of aspects of the work of Bourdieu which provide me with a theoretical framework which affords a valuable basis to explore and explain the choices made by HTs. This framework provides a 'theoretical lens' (Connelly, 2014:187) through which to evaluate why the choice to take the lead in ITT is perhaps not as Gove (2010) suggests, 'a simple one.' Rather, the choice may be empowering and complex, drawn from an individual's history of past experiences and based on current values and beliefs. It is therefore posited that

the past experiences, the personal histories of the HTs ultimately may contribute to the decision to become involved in this activity.

3.1.3 The significance of structure and agency

Bourdieu believed that it is an individual's self-awareness and capacity to make their own choices that is significant to the relationship between thought and action (Marginson, 2008:312.). His theory was in contrast to other prominent thinkers of the 20th century who hypothesised that an individual's capacity to make decisions was influenced by structures in society, the religious, and the social class or gender groupings to which the individual belongs (Scrambler, 2015). In effect an individual's behaviour, their actions, are determined by these influences, these structures in any given situation (James, 2015; Gale and Lingard, 2015). Bourdieu posited an alternative. His theory 'liberated' individuals from the constraints of these structures in society, the religious, and the social class or gender groupings to which they belong, and he determined that individuals have the capacity to act independently of these, to exercise free will. For Bourdieu individuals exercise agency in their social interactions and consequently, their thoughts and actions are not determined by structure. This belief that individuals exercise agency in their behaviour, autonomy in deciding their thoughts and action, would seem to suggest that Bourdieu rejected the force of structure on the thought and action of an individual, yet this is not the case. My interpretation of Bourdieu's work is that rather than reject the force of structure, on the contrary he reconceptualises this in the form of 'structured fields' (Power, 1999; Rawole and Lingard, 2008). His intent is to explore and explain his observations of how power relations in society as a whole result in inequality in a

range of social interactions (Bathmaker, 2015:61) and he identifies groups within which these social interactions take place for example education and social class (see section 3.5). For Bourdieu an individual's behaviour is shaped and guided as a result of social interactions within and between these different 'social' groups. He maintains that these social interactions are in turn influenced by the collective predispositions, values and beliefs of the social structure that an individual operates within (Harker, 1984:118). As Bourdieu explains 'The individual is always, whether he likes it or not trapped…within the limits of the system of categories he owes [to] his upbringing and training' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992:26). It is between the constraints of the social structure and the autonomy of the individual, the free will, that habitus resides. Consequently, the concept of habitus is Bourdieu's hypothesis of the interrelationship between structure and agency and this will be critiqued later in this theme (see section 2.3.4).

Bourdieu's work challenged the *deterministic* (italics my own) nature of the force of structure positing that behaviour is socially *constrained* (italics my own) by forces of structure as an individual takes account of the values and beliefs of the field within which they are socialising (Ferrare and Apple, 2015:49). More precisely, thought and action reside with the individual (agency) based on their understanding of the world in which they live and which they create through social interaction in a variety of contexts (field). Here the legitimacy of Bourdieu's work in this thesis becomes apparent. In this thesis RQ1 and RQ2 relate to my hypothesis that for the HTs in this study, the decision to take the lead in ITT is the outcome of a variety of social interactions, lifelong experiences both personal and professional which contribute to and influence their decision.

3.1.4 Habitus

The concept of habitus is fundamental to Bourdieu's theoretical framework and it is the habitus which forms the link between the individual and their behaviour (James, 2015; Reay, 2004; Hilgers, 2009). In his later writings Bourdieu explains that habitus is 'systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures' (Bourdieu, 1990:53). My understanding of this is that these transposable dispositions are internal structures of the social world in which an individual operates, dispositions reproduce the environments in which they were shaped and in turn structure how an individual view the world. According to Bourdieu it is these dispositions which are the essential features of an individual's character and temperament based on their personal history, preferences and experiences. Furthermore, it is an individual's dispositions 'the bodily incorporations of an individual's social history' (Rawolle and Lingard, 2008: 731) interacting within a range of social spaces that can influence and structure the actions that an individual takes (Marginson, 2008: 307). In short, habitus is something that embodies and characterises an individual, their way 'of standing, speaking, walking, and thereby of feeling and thinking' (Bourdieu, 1990:70). It is the internal nature of an individual which embodies the culture of the social group within which they interact. Harker (1984:120) observes that an individual's habitus is therefore unique and can potentially influence how the individual will behave and what choices they will make in the course of their interaction with other people, or as a result of external influences and experiences. Consequently, habitus is a set of dispositions that helps the individual to construct the world in which they live through the first-hand encounters that an individual has in a range of contexts (Nolan, 2012:215). More recently, the

concept of disposition has been aligned with a constructivist perspective (Raths and Diez, 2007:93) which Bourdieu himself eventually subscribed to in his later writing describing this as 'constructivist structuralism' (Bourdieu,1987:5). This model confirms that individuals are constantly evolving and so it is difficult for our dispositions to remain static. In this thesis I suggest that external influences are exemplified through the reform of ITE and the experiences of the participants relate to the evolving nature of partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs (see theme one and theme two in chapter 2). Consequently, the impact of these external influences ultimately contributes to the behaviour and choices of the individual. Hawthorn clarifies the concept of habitus further by explaining that an individual's habitus 'is shaped thoughts, beliefs, interests and understanding of the world around them' (Hawthorn, 2016). In this thesis the beliefs of the participants about ITE and their understanding of their contribution to the preparation of future teachers as a result of their social interactions, their shaped thoughts, are relatable to RQ1 and RQ2.

The concept of habitus is not a new concept which was defined and developed by Bourdieu alone, it has evolved over time and originates in the time of Aristotle where it was a moral concept associated with the determining of an individual's qualities (Marginson, 2008:73). Habitus has been developed and shaped by other philosophers and writers for example Durkheim, Mauss, and Hegel (cited in Reed –Danahay, 2004:103) and it these different interpretations of habitus which influenced Bourdieu throughout his career. As Belvedere (2013:1094) observes 'it is not possible to find a consistent definition in Bourdieu's work' as Bourdieu refined his own understanding of this concept over three decades in his writings. In his later works he refines the concept of habitus to include the almost involuntary impact on decision making of

those deeply held values and beliefs which individuals have, and which determine how they interact with others in any social interactions (Hilgers, 2009: 740). In this thesis, it is Reay's (2004: 434) interpretation of Bourdieu's final articulation of habitus that endorses my own understanding of the concept. She posits that habitus operates on a number of levels through thoughts, actions and more specifically the *changing* (italics my own) nature of an individual's persona as a result of the impact of first-hand experiences which are embodied. An individual's habitus evolves as a result of these first-hand experiences and, as Bourdieu himself explains, because of these first-hand encounters habitus is not static it is ever changing as it interacts with travel, age and education for example (Bourdieu, 1990:52). This indicates that individuals reorganise and reconceptualise their understandings of the world based on the social interactions that they have in a variety of situations over the course of their life. Given this, it is logical that Bourdieu should himself reconceptualise his own understanding of habitus based on his own individual history and it is his later articulation of habitus which pertains to this thesis.

3.1.5 The legitimacy of utilising the concept of habitus

It is important to acknowledge before continuing that the selection and application of Bourdieu's work as a theoretical framework for the purpose of exploring the decisions made by HTs to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers is contentious. Reay (2004:432) suggests that while Bourdieu's interpretation of agency sought to challenge the concept of determinism prevalent in the 21st century, his concepts have 'often been subject to widespread criticism' and challenges to his conceptualisation of the autonomy of an individual. James (2015:92) corroborates this and adds that the use

of Bourdieu's concepts in educational research are particularly 'attractive' leading to superficial usage 'bestowing gravitas without doing any theoretical work (Reay, 2004:432). Bathmaker (2015) in her paper 'Thinking with Bourdieu: thinking after Bourdieu' suggests the relational aspect of habitus between the external influences and experiences of an individual has provided for some a means of disputing the idea that an individual exercises free will and has complete freedom to create their own life story and yet for others, has provided a means of over emphasising the role of agency in decision making. This seemingly polarised interpretation of Bourdieu's habitus raises questions about the legitimacy of utilising his work. Referring to both, Hiligers' (2009:740) opinion of the almost involuntary impact of the habitus on decision making and Harker's (2016) interpretation of habitus as shaped thoughts suggests a similarity with the determinism that Bourdieu's work tried to overcome and resonates with the criticism of his work as 'latent determinism' (Reay, 2004:432).

A critical point in Bourdieu's theory is that while habitus may be regarded as a limiting influence and somewhat deterministic (Jenkins 2002, cited in Bathmaker, 2015:65), habitus does not *necessarily* determine (italics my own) thought and action (Bourdieu, 1990:86). An individual's deeply held values and beliefs are 'linked to individual histories' (ibid) which embody all that has gone before. As Reay (2004 :434) comments, it is the grasp of these individual histories which Bourdieu identifies in his later work that are key to understanding the concept of habitus. Harker (2016) clarifies this further, explaining that it is through a person's experience of first hand encounters which result in the construction of individual histories and form part of the habitus. Accordingly, their life story is in part determined and shaped by an individual's past experiences, their histories, and it is these past experiences which

fuse with first-hand experiences and influence an individual's future thoughts and actions. After considering the summaries of Harker and Reay, the intricacy of the 'structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures' that Bourdieu (1990:51) identifies in his later articulation of habitus are becoming less complex. As Reay (2004:434) comments:

> It appears that Bourdieu is conceiving of habitus as a multi-layered concept, with more general notions of habitus at the level of society and more complex, differentiated notions at the level of the individual […] Current circumstances are not just there to be acted upon, but are internalized and become yet another layer to add to those from earlier socialisations.

The proposal of the habitus as a multi layered concept suggests that forming the habitus is a cyclical process of constructing life histories as past experiences interact with present experiences. Yet I believe there is still an element of determinism here and the relational aspect of the social structure in which the individual operates, the field, and the tension between the unconscious and conscious act of decision making, the notion of free will, need further consideration

3.1.6 Habitus and freedom

Hilgers (2009: 731) describes habitus as a 'permanent mutation.' Actions of an individual are considered, evaluated and created through social interaction by a person's habitus. This generates an infinite number of actions or responses from any one individual which is dependent on their own disposition, their character and temperament (Hilgers, 2009:731). Furthermore, Hilgers (2009:741) emphasises the importance of the relationship between habitus and freedom, the free will of the agent to make decisions. The 'structuring structures of the habitus' relates to the degree of agency an individual has and is dependent on their position in the social structure or field in which they operate. Hilgers ((2009:741) asserts if an agent 'can master the objective rules that structure field, then they are at ease playing with them while remaining in line with their requirements.' Hence habitus is explored in relation to the culture, the values and beliefs of any group, in this case the HTs interviewed as part of this study. In turn these values and beliefs are then shaped as a result of the individual's history, their experiences in the field of ITE both past and present and embodied by an individual. This embodiment shapes their personality and temperament, their disposition, and forms the basis of his/her behaviour in any given situation, in this thesis impacting on the decisions to take the lead in ITT.

Throughout section 3.1.4 I have emphasised the 'action' of individuals interacting within social spaces to develop their habitus. Furthermore, I have suggested that the habitus of the individual HTs has been influenced by the first-hand experiences of operating in the social space related to ITE. Consequently, it is possible that it is the development of the habitus through this interaction in the social space related to ITE

which has resulted in the action, the decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers and which is the focus of this thesis. These social spaces are organised into what Bourdieu identifies as 'fields' and it is the creation of fields in his later writings that shifts the works of Bourdieu further away from the claims of latent determinism (Gale and Lingard, 2015: 5) discussed in section 3.1.5. Whereas habitus is the embodiment of an individual's disposition and determines the behaviour of an individual, fields are the social spaces where the behaviour takes place, 'the environment/habitat within which agents' habitus is expressed in practice.' (Rawolle and Lingard 2008:732). Consequently, field is an important part of Bourdieu's 'primary thinking tools' (Atkinson 2019:4).

3.1.7 Bourdieu's social spaces.

For Bourdieu a field is a social space where individuals interact. This space is structured internally by the social positions that each individual occupies and the power relations between individuals operating within that field. Bourdieu (1985:724) explains this as follows:

> … the social world can be represented as a space (with several dimensions) constructed on the basis of principles of differentiation or distribution constituted by the set of properties active within the social universe in question, i.e., capable of conferring strength, power within that universe, on their holder.

It is probable that individuals will inhabit more than one field at a time and in their lifetime may move across many different fields (Costa and Murphy, 2015:131). As Nolan (2011:207) observes ‘it is [in fields] that everyday decisions are made within a network of structures and relations.’ It is the decisions made in this network of structures that form the habitus (see section 3.1.4)

At the time of his writing (approx1990) Bourdieu suggested that there are many fields, for example the legal field and the literary field (Atkinson, 2019:4), which are ‘all historically constituted areas of activity with their specific instructions and their own ways of functioning’ (Bourdieu, 1990:87). These places of activity are according to Bourdieu ‘quite peculiar social worlds where the universal is engendered’ (Bourdieu, 1998:71), that is fields are the places where the individual interacts with the characteristics of that social group to construct the habitus. In his later writings, Bourdieu went on to suggest the existence of ‘micro fields’ citing the family amongst them ‘with their own particular stakes and struggles’ (Atkinson, 2019:3). Ferrare and Apple (2015:47) in their paper ‘Field theory and educational practice’ clarify the writing of Bourdieu further and note that while this might suggest that fields are autonomous in nature, operating only around those particular types of capital for example cultural and academic which are pertinent to their structure, fields are also susceptible to external influences, ‘practices in relation to the field of power at given historical moments.’ Here the dominant field of power intersects and interacts with any given field which can result in modifications to the distinctive features which

identify that field. My interpretation of this is that the structure of a field is not a fixed entity, it is subject to change and develops in relation to the new practices, knowledge, systems and procedures of significance at that time. Pertaining to this and taking into consideration the policy, the practices and knowledge of ITE and the nature of partnership, the systems and procedures, I would suggest that the field of ITE is in a state of flux. The field of power in the form of new policies and practices critiqued in theme one of the literature review and the evolving partnerships which have been critiqued in theme two of this thesis have in effect shifted the structure of the field of ITE.

Yet there is still another dimension to these places of activity, those social spaces where the individual interacts with the characteristics of that social group to construct the habitus. As Bourdieu reminds us the practices of/in a field 'cannot be accounted for without considering the structure of the power relations among the members' (1998:7) of that field. As Rawolle and Lingard observe (2008:73), it is through this interaction with others in relation to the power that they have within this social field that contributes to the construction of their social habits. My understanding of this is that each field is organised around the power relations between individuals as they strive to achieve their position in the field. This position, an individual's status within a field, is symbolic, that is representative, given as a result of the type of capital each individual strives to achieve. Grenfell (2009:17) interprets the meaning of capital in Bourdieu's writings as the resources and assets specific to that field which bring status, power to the individual. Bourdieu identifies four types of capital: economic, symbolic, social and cultural (Nolan, 2011:215) and it is cultural capital, a form of symbolic capital, which is germane to this thesis. Cultural capital "is a credit, it is the

power granted to those who have obtained sufficient recognition to be in a position to impose recognition" (Bourdieu, 1990:138). In this thesis cultural capital is a commodity which is granted by the elected government of the time and bargained with as a result of the changes in policy and evolving nature of partnership. For the HTs their qualifications which validate them as professionals in the field of ITE and their knowledge and understanding of the preparation of future teachers interacting with others within the field of ITE can be regarded as cultural capital. Furthermore, as a result of government intervention in the reform of ITE since 1992 to present day the power relations within the field of ITE have been reconstituted. This is particularly noticeable in the post graduate certificate in education with QTS where it is the schools as opposed to the universities which have been given the opportunity to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers.

Theme two: Power relations between stakeholders in ITE

3.2.1 Introduction to theme two

In theme one of chapter 3, I considered how HTs' perceptions of ITE might influence this decision to take the lead and rooted this decision in a theoretical framework. Here I suggested that it is a person's beliefs, values and perceptions that are fundamental in making this decision and I propose that it is the habitus, the essence of an individual, that is pivotal in making this decision (see section 3.1.4 and 3.1.6). In this concluding theme of the literature reviewed for this thesis, I will analyse the importance of the power relations between the stakeholders in the field of ITE (the government, HEIs and schools). This theme will reflect upon the shifting power relations identified in

2.1, 2.2 and 3.1 of the literature presented and critique to what extent these power relations underpin the narrative of the HTs in my research who made the decision to take the lead in preparing future teachers. In this section my understanding of power relations is informed by the writings of Ball (2012) and his interpretation of the later work of the French philosopher Foucault. While I will suggest that power relations between the stakeholder involved in the preparation of future teachers are co-constructed, I acknowledge that this is not straightforward and power relations between these stakeholders are complex. Therefore, this section will consider how these power relations could be perceived as a constraint or an opportunity dependent on the perceptions of policy intent of each of the stakeholders. In this thesis, the perception of power relations between the stakeholders in the preparation of future teachers - government, HEIs and schools - is implicit in all of my three research questions (see section 1.8) and I suggest that power relations between school and HEIs and government underpin the decision to take the lead in ITT. To illustrate this, I will refer to key commentators of both policy and practice in education for example Ball (2012) and Furlong (2005). Reflecting the three themes in this literature review to this point I will critique the significance of power relations in policy, of shifting power relations between HEIs and schools and the relevance of power relations to the perceptions, values and beliefs of HTs choosing to take the lead in ITT.

3.2.2 What is power?

In his paper 'The conception of power: reconsidered,' Regoli (1974:157) posits that in the domain of social sciences there is an almost intuitive understanding of what power means and how it operates. He suggests that this comprehension is largely based on

our own experiences of power in our lives. On the one hand power could be perceived 'in its potential state'(ibid), observed in relationships as a dialectical opposition between the negative and positive effects of power where significant individuals seem to have dominion over others as a result of their role or their status for example parent - child. Alternatively, Regoli (1974:158) suggests that power can also be considered as tangible, observable where the power of an individual results in controlling/manipulating the actions of another. Attempts to clarify understanding of the concept of power have resulted in multiple and often conflicting descriptions. As Bierstedt (1950:730) comments, 'we all know perfectly well what it is – until someone asks us.' This thought is reflected by Regoli (1974:157) who states that 'the more social scientists attempt to define power, the more complex it is found to be' and it would seem that articulating a 'single unifying statement of power' is problematic (Walford, 2013:153). Lukes (1974:9) concurs yet based on his exploration of the social reality of power he offers a generic one-dimensional view of power in the first edition of his seminal text 'Power a radical view.' This view represents power as dominance, used by an individual or organisations to gain control over another, a positive for those who wield it, a negative to those who experience it. However, in his later works Lukes develops his understanding of power illustrating the complexities which Regoli (1974:157) identifies in defining this power. Lukes (2004:52) offers a more sophisticated three-dimensional view of power in which he suggests that the powerless are subject to a form of domination in which the powerful act upon the powerless in such a way that the latter acts as the former wants them to. Furthermore, as part of this act of power, the powerful exclude 'those which threaten the interests of the powerful' (Lukes, 2004:52). In this articulation of power, power takes a more manipulative form and at first glance this representation seemingly concurs with how

power in this chapter has been presented to this point. In theme 1 and 2 of this literature review key commentators, for example, Furlong et al. (1996), Menter (2013) and Murray (2008) have highlighted the demise of the traditional role of HEIs in ITE which has been as a result of 'the current government's intensification of the discourses of derision around the contributions of HE-based teacher educators' (McNamara and Murray, 2013:16). This in turn has led to a lack of stability in HEIs in a number of areas for example in the area of funding as the diversity of other routes into ITE have impacted on recruitment (ibid). Subsequently, it could be construed that the 'powerful' is the government who seek to curb the dominance of HEIs in the preparation of future teachers through the rhetoric of education policy reform in which ITE is embedded. Power in this narrative is therefore highlighted as a consequence of the dominance of government policy resulting in the shifting roles and responsibilities of the powerless, HEIs and schools. As a result of the move to more formal and mandated partnerships schools have been given increased responsibility and an opportunity to take the lead in ITT. Consequently, through the discourse of educational reform, the voice of HEIs has been excluded and as a consequence, the role of HEIs has been diminished and their perceived dominance in ITE reduced. This interpretation however does not take into account theme 3 of this literature review 'The relevance of beliefs, perception and values in decision making,' which suggests that power relations are constructed between individuals operating within a field, in this thesis the field of ITE. In this, it is the cultural capital, the resources and assets that individuals and/ or organisations bring to this field which gives them a position of power (Bourdieu, 1990). This suggests a more intricate concept of power than one of domination of one (individual/organisation) over another, one that is intricate and, returning to Lipsky's 'street level bureaucrats (see section 2.1.3), the concept of power

here is potentially located in the interpretation of policy by the individual and/or organisation.

3.2.3 The interpretation of power in this thesis.

My understanding of power in this thesis is influenced by the writings of Ball (2012) and his interpretation of the later work of Foucault. In his book 'Foucault, power and education' Ball (2012:29) comments that Foucault's philosophy challenged the prevailing Marxist tradition which favoured a more authoritarian theory of power. This tradition viewed power in relation to class domination where power resided within a concentrated group, a ruling class. Individuals were perceived as oppressed and dominated (Balan 2010:55) and power was dispersed through society from the top down through social institutions, for example the state, religion and education (Anyon, 2011:34). Ball (2012:30) explains that Foucault's concept of power provided an alternative viewpoint, one which challenged this dominant ideology. While Marx was concerned with power as domination by a ruling class, Foucault was more focussed on power in a relational context and articulated this in two technologies of power, biopower and disciplinary power (Rye, 2014:156). While bio power focusses on the state exercising power over the purposes and process of life, disciplinary power organises and manages individuals/groups in relation to others so that society can operate as effectively and efficiently as possible (ibid); the significance of this in my research will be explored in section 3.2.5.

It is this articulation of power which separated Foucault from the traditional view of power and led him to consider the complexities of how power functions in society.

Contrary to Regoli (1974), Foucault posited that power was not defined as an entity in itself, it was articulated as *intangible* (italics my own). For Foucault power is everywhere, 'a fluid, omnipresent network without restrictions' (Parker 2015:107) which does not exist in the abstract but is rather positioned in relation to the individual, the subject and their interactions with others 'by virtue of their acting or being capable of action' (Foucault, 1982: 789). In his essay 'The Subject and the Power' (ibid), Foucault posits that power 'is a total structure of actions brought to bear upon possible actions.' Hence, power only exists when it is 'exercised' in a relational context, 'a set of actions that influences the actions of others' (Garnar, 2006:351). In his later work Foucault developed his understanding of power moving further away from the Marxist tradition to suggest that power need not be viewed as oppressive but at times a positive force, one that cannot be owned by a person or persons and therefore wielded over others (Heizmann and Olsson, 2015:758). Alternatively, power could be liberating and transformational (Ball, 2017:23), a creative source and one that underpins advancement and development of individuals and societies (Gallagher, 2008:397), and it is in the exercising of power that the positive and the negative nature of power can be constructed as individuals channel action in certain directions.

3.2.4 The power/knowledge concept

Foucault's understanding of power was rooted in the relationship between power and knowledge which results in 'cultural formations' (Garnar, 2006:352), that is the regulation of society in which knowledge of that society's values and beliefs are 'used to control the actions of subjects' (ibid). This led Foucault to posit that power and knowledge are not separate, they are inextricably linked (Leask, 2012:63). As Garnar

(2006:353) posits, ‘knowledge creates spaces for power to operate, while power provides sites for knowledge to be produced’ resulting in a symbiotic relationship. Accordingly, it is Foucault’s hypothesis of the intricacies of power/knowledge and the exercising of power through organisations, individuals and structures which is pertinent to this thesis. His argument is that it is in particular knowledge and meaning which is generated in multiple discourses which give rise to the ‘rituals of truths’ (Heizmann and Olsson, 2015:757). Furthermore, it is these truths which in turn create new knowledge and meaning in a particular field (Mayr, 2008:15) and form the foundations of what is true or false in any society which exemplify Foucault’s ‘action upon action’ (Foucault, 1982: 789).

Consequently, the origin of my understanding of power knowledge and that which underpins this thesis is that it is the combination of actions and influences by organisations on another, which give rise to the new knowledge and meaning about the preparation of future teachers through the discourses in the field of ITE. Here, power knowledge is perceived as relational, as an action which is exercised in a space where it is co-constructed and negotiated between individuals and groups who influence each other in a range of social interactions. As Ball (2012:30) surmises ‘a shifting and changing interactive network of social relations between individuals, groups, institutions and structures that are political, economic and personal.’ (see section 3.2.5)

3.2.5 The techniques of power in educational policy

This shifting network of social relations situated in a political context are, according to Ball (2012:30), fundamental to education policy. In his interpretation of the works of Foucault Ball posits that two techniques of power, what Ball terms regulatory power and disciplinary (biopower), lock together to manage the population and 'operate at different levels, what we might roughly call policy and practice, but which are closely interrelated at many points' (Ball 2012:45). Ball (ibid) proposes that regulatory power, those policies set out by government ensure that the population comply with legislation of the country whereas the disciplinary power, the practice, is the social sphere in which these policies are interpreted and enacted. These two techniques of power would seem to underpin the critical analysis in theme one of this chapter of educational policy from 1992-present day which suggests that it is the Government effecting regulatory power which is significant to the power relations between HEIs and schools and leads to the permitting circumstances which enable schools to take the lead in ITT (see section 2.1.6). Power emanates from government in legislating policy to be implemented in ITT to manage the population, the education workforce of HEIs and schools referred to in this chapter. The power of the government and the impact of these policies in relation to ITE over the years of 1992- present day have been critiqued in themes 1 and 2 and seem to support the view of government as a dominant power creating policy to enact educational reform. However, this would appear to be a simplistic one-dimensional view which does not take into account the closely 'interrelated aspects' of these two techniques of power. This will be explored more fully in section 3.2.7. Furthermore, as previously stated in section 3.2.4, from a Foucauldian perspective, power 'cannot be established without the production, accumulation, circulation and operation of a discourse' (Moutsios, 2010:130) and it is

through this discourse that knowledge about and the perceived intent of the policy is constituted. This would suggest that the power/knowledge concept identified by Foucault is located in the education discourses of between 1992 to present day (Ball, 2017:43), and consideration of those discourses which give rise to power relations between stakeholders is required to address RQ1, 'For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model?' and RQ2, 'How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school-led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?

As has been established in section 2.1.5 of this thesis, prior to the late 1990s, Educational reform was not solely the prerogative of the UK and subsequently England (as a result of devolution of powers) which is the focus of this thesis. Educational reform was also reflected in the global community in line with increasing economic and technological needs. Consequently, these educational discourses originate throughout the world in the social and wider economic and political arena (Ball, 2017; Moutsios, 2010). According to Moutsios 'discourses are discourses precisely because they convey meaning' (Moutsios, 2010:131) and it is therefore relevant to consider the connection between the power/ knowledge concept in educational reform and the meanings which originate in the educational discourse of the stakeholders, and are co- constructed by the stakeholders, the government, HEIs and schools over the period 1992 – present day. Furthermore Castoriadis and Curtis (1991:24) posit that these discourses establish what is valued and prized in a society, the meanings that are constructed shape and form an identity 'the construction of its own world by each and every society is, in essence, the creation of a world of meanings' (ibid). In this thesis the construction of meaning between the stakeholders

for the preparation of future teachers gives rise to the shifting power relations that underpin my research.

3.2.6 Power relations between government and HEIs

In the field of ITE, the educational discourse between the government and HEIs which gives rise to the 'rituals of truths' (Heizmann and Olsson, 2015:757, see section 3.2.4) could be seen as challenging. While the aim of both stakeholders is the quality of its future teachers, the constructed meanings about the ways to achieve this could be conflicting. As a result, power relations may appear nebulous, that is to say imprecise and unformulated, as the intent of government policies clash with the 'interpretations and translations of the policies' (Ball et al., 2012:612) of key commentators in HEIs. An illustration of this can be seen in Furlong's (2005) paper 'New labour and teacher education: the end of an era' where he critiques the impact of government policy on ITE from the 1990s through the new millennium. Furlong (2005:121) comments that while government rhetoric continued to cite that education reform was concerned with the raising of standards in education, the intent was the marginalisation of university input into teacher education (see section 2.2.6). By mandating school involvement in key aspects of recruitment and training, the balance of power between these two stakeholders was shifting and the role of HEIs in the preparation of future teachers was changing (see section 2.2.4). According to Furlong (2005:121) this was politically charged, focussed on redefining teacher professionalism through a curriculum for teacher education and implementing standards for teaching, in effect creating a teacher education that was centrally controlled and a 'downgrading of the significance of teacher education' (Furlong, 2005:123).

It could be argued that the power relations here are explicit. In echoes of Lukes' three dimensional form of power, the powerful, the government is regarded by HEIs as a negative force to manage what is viewed by the government as the dominant establishment of HEIs, threatening the interests of government with their progressive ideas embedded in the curriculum for teacher education (Lukes, 2004:52). As Furlong (2005:123) continues, 'More than any other group in the now vilified "educational establishment", university and college departments of education were singled out as being the most pernicious in their influence.' The intent to curb the perceived dominant establishments of HEIs, did not seem to be the aim of any one government over the period from 1992 to present day. Furlong comments that after an extended period of government by the Conservatives, the rhetoric of raising educational standards embedded in New Labour's 'third way' policies (Furlong, 2005:124) was grounded in many of the core principles of preceding Conservative governments and continued the competitive marketisation of teacher education with a move towards more school-based, school centred initiatives (see section 2.1.3). Consequently, with the continuation of the development of these school-based initiatives, Furlong suggests that HEIs are no longer a 'key concern' (Furlong, 2005:132) and more recently, continuing the policy trajectory of education reform in another example of a significant policy flourish (see section 2.1.1), the White Paper, 'The importance of teaching' (DfE 2010) continued this intent of diminishing the role of HEIs (see section 2.2.7). This perspective by key commentators of HEIs could be debatable as, throughout this period, the government rhetoric has continued to use the language of collaboration and partnership between schools and HEIs and government documents have persisted in emphasising the essential nature of HEI/school partnership in teacher

education (DfE, 1992; DfE, 2010; DfE, 2016) Yet the proposed expansion of SCITT and the allocation of more accredited ITT providers affords a greater allocation of training places which impacts on the funding stream of those HEIs providing ITE, particularly in the area of post graduate provision (Roberts and Foster, 2015:7).

Throughout this period, despite these legislative moves and the creation of advisory and statutory bodies to monitor these (see section 2.1.3), HEIs still remain key players in the preparation of future teachers and schools continue to choose to work in partnership with HEIs across the range of different routes to QTS. However given the scale of changes it remains to be seen to what extent HEIs will continue to be key players in the preparation of future teachers (Whitty, 2017: Whiting et al., 2018). As Spendlove (2020) comments 'perhaps it is testimony to the robustness (or naivety) of the sector that more university providers haven't withdrawn from offering ITE.' While the argument has been framed against a background of legislation embedded in education reform with the intent of marginalising and diminishing the power of the HEIs it could be argued that the power relations between these two key stakeholders are fluid, where HEIs have 'regained' power at key points in this period. This is firstly through the interpretation, translation and enactment of these policies (Ball et al., 2010; Lipsky, 2010) in the evolving partnership between HEIs and schools (see section 2.2.1) and secondly by shifting the discourse from the providers of routes into teaching by emphasising the distinct contribution that HEIs make in the preparation of future teachers.

3.2.7 Power relations between government and schools

Whereas power relations between government and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers could be viewed as challenging, power relations between government and school could be described as mystifying. As a tutor in HEI my interpretation of power relations between these two stakeholders is inferred from a critique of government policy (see theme 1) and my interpretation of the impact of these policies on schools through the lens of partnership between HEIs and schools (see section 2). However, my understanding of power relations informed by the works of Foucault offers a basis for an ideological explanation. That being so I suggest that the power relations between government and school for the preparation of future teachers lie in Foucault's articulation of governmentality. In section 2.1, the literature presented contends that power relations between the elected governments of the time and schools were those where governments 'exercised power' to construct and determine the role of schools in the preparation of future teachers as part of the reform of ITE. This domination by the elected government was legitimised through the political discourse of the time as part of the global agenda of raising education standards (see section 2.1.5). It could be argued that this does not seem to take into account Foucault's power knowledge concept, as practices of power here reflect the more traditional understanding of power emanating from a centralised source (Smart, 1988 in Lemke 2002:8) where government ideologies and practices dominate, and schools are merely beneficiaries of their roles. However, Lemke (2002:5) clarifies that the difference between domination and practices of power is a subtle one. He continues that in Foucault's later works the distinction between the two is rooted in the concept of governmentality, that is an approach to governing society which emphasises the positive effects of power and the willingness of individuals to accept and take part in

their own governance. It is this concept of governmentality that is pertinent in exploring the power relations between government and schools. Here, government 'create a discursive field' (Lemke 2002 :8) which shapes 'the conduct, thoughts, decisions and aspirations' (Barretta and Busco, 2011:213) of schools in relation to their roles and responsibilities for ITE. This discourse gives rise to 'a regime of rationality' (Foucault, 1991:79) in which policies are validated and justified to the population. Consequently, between the period 1992 -present day, a complex field of power relations between government and schools has evolved which resides at the nexus of the 'world of discourse [policy] and the field of practice' (Ball, 2002:9). I suggest that in my research, this complex field of power relations is rooted in the neoliberal agenda of raising educational standards which led to an emphasis on increased control and accountability in schools (see section 2.1.4). As Parker (2015:108) posits, increased regulation of schools (in this thesis between 1992-present day) through external inspections, monitoring performance and the emphasis on a standardized national curriculum left little room for schools to exercise autonomy and contribute to the discourse of the reform ITE. Consequently, this 'takeover from the centre' (Nixon, Cope, McNally, Rodrigues and Stephen, 2000:242), those numerous acts of power relations between the elected governments (Conservative, New Labour and the conservative led government) and schools which were situated in the discourse of teacher accountability and teacher professionalism, embodies Foucault's 'set of actions upon other actions' (Foucault, 1982: 789), and exemplifies this notion of governmentality. What has resulted is docile bodies (Lemke, 2002:3), schools under the control of government where the opportunities for resistance (of schools) to the practices of power become eroded. Rather than creating an opportunity to establish the intent of the policy through educational discourse between government and

schools, the imperative becomes one of acceptance where teachers implement government initiatives without question in a bid to ensure their school meets the imposed standards. Consequently, it is the rationality of accountability which is presented by the elected government of the time as 'the new common sense, as something logical and desirable' by society (Ball and Olmedo, 2013:88) and the intent of policy embedded in the 'operation of a discourse' (Moutsios, 2010:130) which gives rise to the 'often misleading and controversial line that separates power from those of domination'(ibid).

The juxtaposition of schools as 'docile bodies' as opposed to active participants in educational reform presented to this point does not appear to be consistent with the notion of governmentality. Yet while these numerous acts of power relations by government persisted, the discourse of educational reform continued in both the national and global arena (see section 2.1.5). Exemplifying the observations of Castoriadis and Curtis (1991:24) this discourse created new knowledge and meaning in the field of ITE for the preparation of future teachers. This culminated in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) and it appears that the Conservative led Coalition government exercised a more conciliatory tone in establishing power relations between government and school for the preparation of future teachers. While the Coalition government continued with the trajectory of the reform of education, section 2.1.2 highlights that power relations between these two stakeholders appear to shift. The change in the remit and the role of HEIs and Colleges in ITE rooted in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) heralded a change in the willingness of schools to enact policy. The educational discourse changed to one in which the value of teachers in the preparation of future teachers was determined and, rather than continuing as the beneficiaries of

their roles and responsibilities in ITE, schools were given the opportunity to take a more 'dominant' role in ITT (see section 1.6). Continuing this discourse as part of the reform of ITE, in 2013 the then education secretary Michael Gove reinforced the message of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) in asserting 'that the skills which define great teaching ...are best learnt from great teachers.' The new rationality became one of 'teacher professionalism' and it is this rhetoric of government that acknowledges the 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu, 1990) that schools bring to the field of ITT and underpin the power relations between schools and HEIs which is a focus of RQ3 'What might be the implications for future partnerships between schools and HEIs as a result of the decision to take the lead in the SD model of ITT ?'

3.2.8 Power relations between HEIs and schools

I would suggest that the concept of power relations between HEIs and schools is rooted in the 'the tension and concerns about roles and responsibility (Conroy, Hulme and Menter, 2013:562) entrenched in the continuing debate about what constitutes the curriculum for ITE and by whom and where this curriculum is best delivered (Furlong, 2006:125). As outlined in section 2.1.3, partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools were mandated by government and with it the roles and responsibilities for each stakeholder in regard to the recruitment and training of teachers. This act of power by government would appear to conform with Lukes' three-dimensional construct of power (see section 3.2.2) where HEIs and schools are the powerless, controlled/manipulated by government as part of the neoliberal agenda of educational reform. Over the years 1992 to present day, the development of these roles and responsibilities have resulted in a shift from the traditional model of ITE to

one which is school- based and school- led, and with this shift in responsibilities has come a shift in power relations. However, there is an element of caution in critiquing power relations between these two stakeholders in this manner and I refer back to section 2.2.8 where I commented that the body of available research in this area is written from the perspective of HEIs ((Ledoux and McHenry, 2008:156; Kirk, 2013: 23). Consequently it could be suggested that historically the discourse of ITE has been controlled by HEIs who have established their power in the field of ITE by carefully selecting language which has conveyed knowledge and therefore authority about their role in the preparation of future teachers (Maguire et al., 2011:3). Furthermore, it could be argued that the rhetoric of HEIs in employing emotive language to describe the demise of the traditional role of HEIs in ITE (Menter, 2013: Murray, 2008) and 'marginalisation of university ITE provision' (Spendlove, 2020) has its basis in the fear of losing control of the discourse of ITE. Yet despite this caution the neoliberal ideologies, which gave rise to the new 'rituals of truth' founded in free market enterprises, undoubtedly changed the landscape of provision for ITE and in turn the power relations between HEIs and schools. Schools were now able to 'choose providers' to work in partnership with as part of the SD model and of ITT or, alternatively, to become an accredited ITT provider by way of SCITT (DfE, 2019) which gave them an opportunity to exercise power and take control of the agenda for ITE. The new 'rationality' for the preparation of future teachers now evolves to become one of school- led ITT and existing models of partnership between HEIs and schools are forced to change. It could be argued that with this new rationality, the expansion of SCITT and SD models of ITT with their emphasis on recruitment to meet the needs of their school clusters move the preparation of future teachers further away from partnership with HEIs and has led to competition between HEIs as they

‘experiment with different packages’ (Brown, 2017: 33) in an attempt to compete with other locally based HEI providers. As Brown (2017:26) comments ‘recent policy changes including SD have also altered the balance of power between universities and schools and in turn their relationship with one another.’ Consequently, at the time of writing increased marketisation and diversification of ITT continues and HEIs continually have to ‘compromise and adapt to increasing uncertainty,’ (Spendlove, 2020), to adapt and respond to the instability of student numbers and divert funding streams across a range of partnerships. This in turn continues to downgrade the significance of the contribution of HEIs for the preparation of future teachers and strengthens the position of power which schools have gradually attained (Whiting et al., 2018:17).

3.2.9 The oscillating pendulum of power relations in the reform of ITE

In this concluding theme of chapter 3 the actions of power by stakeholders in ITE, government, HEIs and schools have been critiqued. These actions have been informed by the work of Foucault and have been rooted in power relations between government and HEIs, government and schools and finally HEIs and school. While it has been suggested that power relations between these three key stakeholders in ITE have shifted as a result of policy and practice, intent and enactment, the expansion of ITT has not resulted in the scale of recruitment to teachers that the government intended. Indeed, the new rhetoric of government appears to endorse and value ‘high quality university involvement’ (Whiting et al., 2018:92) in ITT a policy development which leads Spendlove (2020) to surmise that ‘there has been reluctant dependence upon the university sector to prop up the governments failed policies.’ Therefore, the current

landscape of teacher recruitment brings with it new opportunities for each stakeholder to bring their own expertise to ITE and redefine their roles and responsibilities for the preparation of future teachers. In a move to swing the pendulum of power once more, HEIs seek to regain control of the discourse of ITE and to once more establish their place as a key stakeholder in the field of ITE. The rhetoric of HEIs has shifted to one which establishes teachers as a body of professionals who must 'engage with empirical research' (Orchard and Winch, 2015:7), commenting that universities are 'better placed than schools to promote the three kinds of theoretical engagement necessary to good teaching' (ibid). Consequently, while schools are currently taking the lead in ITT the currency of their cultural capital which secures their position of power (see section 3.2.2), is situated in the skills and knowledge of the classroom whereas key commentators in HEI argue that the cultural capital of HEIs is situated in the distinct contribution that they bring to teacher education (Furlong et al., 2008; Menter, 2014; Orchard and Winch, 2015).

3.3 Concluding thoughts

Throughout chapters 2 & 3, it has become apparent that the landscape of ITE has been transformed from one where HEIs controlled the agenda for the preparation of future teachers to one where HEIs are in competition with a range of other providers of ITT. While the 'marketisation of ITE' (Spendlove, 2020) and the wresting of power from HEIs (Ellis and Spendlove, 2020:928) might not have been the sole determination of any one government, the trajectory of the reform of ITE appears to have been rooted in a series of significant policy flourishes over successive governments between 1992-present day which culminated in the publication of the White Paper 'The importance

of Teaching' (DfE, 2010). The momentum of accrediting alternative providers of ITT set out in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) has continued and while the language of government continues to refer to the collaborative nature of ITT, the rhetoric of government continues to emphasise the significance of practice based learning, the technical craft of teaching (Gove, 2010) and therefore the importance of 'handing back power to the professionals'(Whitty, 2014:7). The continued discourse of the theory practice binary has led to a complex and multifaceted perspective about the preparation of future teachers which has resulted in shifting power relations between the key stakeholders in ITE: the government, HEIs and schools.

It could be suggested that the combination of actions of power by the government has resulted in turbulent and unsettled times for HEIs as allocation of places for the preparation of future teachers has moved further away from HEIs. In contrast, while it appears that HEIs have seen their control of ITE diminish, the reform of education of which the reform of ITE was a significant aspect has given rise to the permitting circumstances which see outstanding schools taking the lead in the new model of ITT. While successive acts of power by government have given rise to the new rationality of teacher professionalism the roles and responsibilities of HEIs and schools which were embedded in partnership have moved away from the traditional university led models towards the proliferation of a school- based and school- led models of ITT. However, despite these moves to empower outstanding schools to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers, the decision requires not only the creation of the permitting circumstances but an understanding of how perceptions of ITE might influence schools to take on this role and responsibility. The literature reviewed suggests that there is little evidence which gives HTs a voice about their role in and

perceptions of ITE and it is this question which forms the basis of my study. From the conception that decisions are based on an individual's understanding of the world in which they operate it is argued that it is the habitus and its associated concepts of field and cultural capital that are at the root of this decision. It is posited that these concepts give rise to personal histories which in turn impact on the decision to take the lead in ITT.

The choice of phenomenology outlined in more detail in chapter 4 of this thesis, is pertinent in giving HTs a voice to explore this decision. It enables me to uncover the 'lived in experience' of the HTs in this study as they embark on their first year of taking the lead in ITT by way of the school-led model of SD. Furthermore, this philosophical stance enables me to share their accounts of what this experience is *actually* (italics my own) like and co-construct their perceptions of ITE.

Chapter 4. Situating the research: Methodology and research design

4.1 Introduction to the Chapter

In this chapter I will explore the reasons for situating the research in the non-positivist qualitative paradigm of phenomenology. I will outline the paradigmatic issues which led to adopting phenomenology as my philosophical stance and provide a detailed rationale for why I considered this to be 'fit for purpose' in exploring the perceptions of a group of HTs as they embark on their first year in taking the lead by way of the SD model of ITT. The complexities and challenges of phenomenology as a method will be considered and to support this, I will set out the central tenets of phenomenology and hermeneutics with references to the philosophy of Husserl and Heidegger. In this study attention to data collection (and analysis) techniques which recreate the *actual* (italics my own) experiences of the participants is significant. Consequently, in reviewing the research design in line with the aims of the research and the chosen methodology this chapter will identify an appropriate method for conducting the research in adopting interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). In line with this, the impact of this choice on the research design including ethical issues and the selection of participants will be outlined.

4.2 Selecting a research tradition

In the initial stages of my research journey I was tasked with selecting a research tradition, a methodology which was appropriate for the research topic and would provide the philosophical basis which is the foundation for the study. The relevance of this initial stage is confirmed by Abawi (2012:14) who states that the selection of an appropriate methodology is critical for all researchers as it will affect the process and the research design. Furthermore, the selection will have a bearing on the methods employed to collect the data and finally influence the way the data are interpreted and presented. Denscombe (2014:18) suggests that as a researcher undertaking research in the field of social sciences, the field in which this thesis is located, there are a number of methodological approaches which I can select from and employ. Consequently, the range of options available left me tested and perplexed by 'the plethora of research methodologies' (Groenewald, 2004:42). In these initial stages I acknowledged that, prudently chosen, the methodological approach selected could liberate me and bring the clarity needed to succeed in exploring and explaining the phenomenon to be studied. Furthermore, Opie and Sikes (2004:4) comment that the selection of the research methodology is key to the integrity of the research. Negotiating the 'bewildering array of theoretical perspectives' (Gray, 2014:16) to establish what is out there and what is fit for purpose for a particular focus of interest/inquiry is an intricate process. Ultimately, in the domain of social sciences, the challenge remains to conduct a systematic approach to the research which will yield results that have credibility (Denscombe, 2014; Gray, 2014; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017) and contribute to the field of research in that subject. The challenge of contributing to a field of research in this area is significant given that my research focuses on the introduction of a new model of ITT which HTs chose to take the lead in and at the time of writing

there is limited research in this particular area. Consequently, it is important that I make my philosophical position clear at the onset to strengthen the rigour of the research (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017).

4.3 Paradigmatic issues

Taber (2007:35) proposes that educational research is socially constructed, that it is individuals undertaking educational research who use and/or construct models and theories to explain these experiences. He claims that underpinning any research in this area is a universally accepted view, a paradigm, that guides the researcher. This paradigm is a way of making sense of what the researcher is trying to do and how they are trying to do this (Taber, 2007: Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). According to Opie and Sikes (2004:7) in social science research there are two main paradigms, termed the positivist or interpretivist paradigms. These two 'distinct perspectives on the research' (Taber, 2007:34) indicate the focus and approach to the research and provide an indication to the researcher of any outcomes which should be taken into account in future research of this nature. While the positivist paradigm seeks to understand cause and effect through testing a hypothesis, the interpretivist paradigm seeks to look at what makes us unique (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013; Gray, 2014). As my research is about interpreting the perceptions and experiences of a group of HTs this led to my research being grounded in the non-positivist 'interpretivist' paradigm.

Whilst this term 'non-positivist' is uniformly understood and accepted in research practice (Savin-Baden Howell Major, 2013; Gray, 2014; Denscombe, 2014), Rosieck

(no date) contests the dualist nature of non-positivist/positivist language which he comments does little to explain research focus or design. For Rosieck the authenticity of the interpretivist paradigm lies in the lack of interpretation of quantitative, numerical data that can be measured specifically (Rosieck, cited in Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:55). Consequently, as this thesis does not seek to quantify or to present results statistically, the decision to situate the research in the interpretivist paradigm is consistent with the views of Willis, Jost and Nilakanta (2007:5). Here the interpretivist paradigm is presented as one in which the researcher normally attempts to find significance in a specific context through studying human behaviour. They posit that such a study is complex, as human behaviour is influenced by a number of factors which can affect and ultimately change this behaviour and they caution the researcher to acknowledge the 'subjective realities' (Willis Jost and Nilakanta ,2007:5) of the participants in seeking to understand what the world means to them. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017:19) provide further clarification to support my decision. They define interpretivist research as one that seeks 'to understand the subjective world of human experience.' The views of Willis, Jost and Nilakanta (2007) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017) add to the credibility of my decision as in this thesis as I research human behaviour in the field of ITE: the subjective world is that of the HTs and their experiences are those of taking the lead in ITT.

In line with the views of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017), Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013:9) comment that the interpretivist researcher uncovers these subjective realities through participants' views. He/she then uses these realities to 'construct and interpret understanding' (Thanh and Thanh, 2015:1) of the participants' world by using data to find answers about the phenomenon to be investigated. Furthermore, an

underlying principle of the interpretivist paradigm is that these realities are socially constructed: this human experience is one in which reality can be interpreted differently by different people (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:89). Consequently, it is this 'non-positivist,' interpretivist paradigm which concurs with the focus of this thesis as the 'reality' in this research is the lived-in experience of several HTs who chose to take the lead in ITE and their perceptions as they embark upon their first experience of this.

Capturing and understanding 'the lifeworld' (Dahlberg and Dahlberg, 2020:461), the personal perceptions and opinions of HTs and exploring realities that are intangible is challenging for me as a researcher as these perceptions are abstract and subjective. Pertaining to this, Taber (2007:32) comments that in social research there are two primary research paradigms which serve different research intentions; these are the quantitative or qualitative paradigms. While the 'positivist,' quantitative researcher utilises a statistical approach to interpreting numerical data with the intention of proving a hypothesis, in the 'non-positivist,' the qualitative researcher seeks to gain an understanding of personal perspectives and opinions and to explore underlying trends and commonalities (Barbour, 2013; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017). Given that the focus of my research is based on HTs explaining their decisions to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT, this approach would seem to be appropriate. Moreover, Barbour (2013:11) states that qualitative research methods can make the abstract real and provide explanations for these realities by 'looking at the explanations, or accounts, provided by those involved.' This point of view is comparable to that of Abawi (2012:141) who suggests that the nature of researching abstract principles steers the researcher towards qualitative

methods. This would appear to confirm that my research is unquestionably in the qualitative paradigm as it sets out to explore an aspect of the world (the world of ITE) and look at the accounts of those involved, the HTs in choosing to take the lead. Yet while Abawi (2012) and Barbour (2013) offer pertinent insights, which lead me towards determining this as a valid approach to my research, Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013:3) maintain that it is not enough for me as the researcher to simply state this, it is also critical for the researcher 'to know the essential features and elements' of qualitative approaches in the field of social sciences. Consequently, my research must conform to the features and elements which are rooted in the qualitative paradigm for example articulating a philosophical position (see section 4.5). Additionally, when selecting the qualitative methods for collecting data, I must demonstrate a clear understanding of their appropriateness to answering my research questions (see section 5.12).

4.4 Philosophical paradigms

Gray (2014:18) observes that rooted in the choice of paradigm is a set of assumptions, assumptions about the social world that the researcher seeks to examine based on their own hypothesis about the nature of reality. In turn these ontological assumptions (Gray, 2014; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017) generate epistemological assumptions, ways of researching the nature of reality in the phenomenon to be studied. As Abawi (2012:141) comments, research is moulded by the way the researcher views and makes sense of the world; these abstract principles are 'a combination of ontological, epistemological and methodological beliefs.' Returning to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017:3) they posit that axiology, that is the values and

beliefs that a researcher holds in combination with their ontological and epistemological assumptions, are an additional aspect of acknowledging the range of underlying assumptions that researchers hold. Greenbank (2003:92) endorses this view and argues that:

> When researchers are deciding what research methods to adopt, they will inevitably be influenced by their underlying ontological and epistemological position. This in turn will be influenced by their values …

Analysing the relationship between the concepts of ontology, epistemology and axiology is significant in this thesis as this adds to the rigour and credibility of my research. At the beginning of my research journey I acknowledged that the origins of my thesis were rooted in ontological assumptions about routes into teaching and partnership between HEIs and schools and that my epistemological assumptions were grounded in my experience of conducting educational research in the qualitative paradigm. Having been in education for 30 years and in ITE for two thirds of this period, my own beliefs and practices with reference to routes into teaching and partnerships between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers were well established and influenced by my professional experiences. Yet in undertaking this research, these values and beliefs evolved and as part of my personal journey as a researcher I became increasingly aware of the connections between my professional practice, the research I was undertaking and the theoretical frameworks within which I

was researching. This was significant in my interpretation of the habitus (see section 3.1.4) and the impact of my understanding of this on the way I view and make sense of the world as a researcher. This is an important consideration in my thesis and will be explored in more detail in section 5.4.

4.5 The Selection of a philosophical position

The decision to locate my research in the qualitative paradigm was a significant decision during my research journey and one that led to a range of further choices including the selection of a method to inform the research design (see section 4.13 and subsequent data collection and analysis (see section 5.9 and 5.12). Additionally, in returning to the essential features of qualitative research referred to in section 4.3 (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:3), the selection of a philosophical position warrants consideration. My understanding from a range of texts in this area is that the philosophical position is the lens through which the researcher views the social world they are researching (Barbour, 2013; Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013; Opie and Sikes, 2004), and articulating this was critical for me in the early stages of my thesis as it would ultimately shape the approach that I took to my research design. The significance of this cannot be underestimated according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017:21) who expand on the comments of Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013:57) and Barbour (2013:209) adding that selecting a philosophical stance goes beyond shaping and moulding the research process. It represents and embodies the views of reality that the researcher holds by making explicit the ontological and epistemological assumptions that a researcher has (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017:19). Realising the importance of being aware of my assumptions and stating

them in my thesis was a pivotal point in my research journey and enabled me to bring rigour and credibility to my research. It is this realisation which led me to explore taking a phenomenological stance. Peters (2009:1) posits phenomenology 'studies the structure of consciousness as it is experienced from the first-person perspective,' this first-person perspective being grounded in the social reality of the phenomenon to be studied (Gray, 2014; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017). It is this examination of the individual perspective which relates directly to my thesis which seeks to explore the perspectives of a group of HTs in their first year of taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017:19).

Consequently, for the purposes of this study I will take a phenomenological position. One of three schools of thought which also includes ethnography and symbolic interactionism, phenomenology sits within the post-positivist movement of sociology (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017; Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013). It is located within the qualitative, interpretative paradigm and is regarded as a major genre in social studies research (Marshall and Rossman, 2016, cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017: 20). Outlining its application to research, Finlay (2009:10) adds that phenomenology is the study of a phenomenon, the nature of that phenomenon and the meaning of it to the individuals who are experiencing this. For the researcher it provides the opportunity to provide a rich and detailed account of a phenomenon through the eyes of others. In taking note of this, my decision to select phenomenology as my philosophical position is strengthened as it conforms with the key features of a qualitative research tradition.

Phenomenologists are concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspective of other people involved and they attempt to uncover the subjective consciousness of several participants who experience the same phenomenon (Welman and Kruger, 1999, cited in Groenewald, 2004). This consciousness is dynamic, located in a social and cultural environment where individuals interact within this environment to express their own interpretations about a phenomenon (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2017:21). Meaning is shaped by individuals through this interaction with their environment and reality is therefore part of, as opposed to separate from, the individual. As previously critiqued in section 3. 1.7, this thesis builds on existing knowledge about the significance of individuals (in this thesis, HTs) interacting within a socially or culturally defined 'field' (in this thesis, ITT). In my research the subjective consciousness is that of the HTs' reality about their experience of leading the preparation of future teachers through the phenomenon of school-led ITT. As already stated in chapter 1 of this thesis the background to this particular model of ITE was as a result of Government legislation and outlined in the White Paper, The importance of teaching (DfE, 2010). Social phenomena are therefore explored through the perspectives and lived in experiences of those involved in the situation (Groenewald, 2004; Gubrium and Holstein, 2002, cited in Groenewald, 2004; Welman and Kruger, 1999, cited in Groenewald, 2004).

In short, phenomenological researchers aim 'for fresh, complex, rich descriptions of a phenomenon as it is concretely lived' (Finlay, 2013:191). My thesis sought to, 'illuminate(ing) the life world' (Dahlberg and Dahlberg, 2020:460) to elicit the personal and therefore unique lived in experiences of these HTs as it was concretely lived in their first year of taking the lead in the phenomenon of a school-led model of

ITT. Consequently, I suggest that this roots my thesis in the philosophical position of phenomenology.

4.6 Clarifying my philosophical position

Early on in my research, a review of the literature surrounding phenomenology revealed that this might be a problematic and somewhat demanding position to take despite a plethora of definitions along with interpretations of phenomenology in the writings of prominent phenomenological researchers (Van Manen, 2016; Bergum, 1991; Giorgi, 2006). As a result of her own experience as a phenomenological researcher, Caelli (2001:275), refers to literature which suggests that this approach has been misinterpreted and inadequately implemented by researchers (Crotty 1995 cited in Caelli 2001; Paley, 1997). Caelli (2001:275) cautions that as a result some researchers were not prepared for the 'intricacies of phenomenology' before beginning their study. Having established that phenomenology was the pragmatic choice for undertaking my research these intricacies became clear over the course of my research journey and my understanding of the central tenets and their relationship to my research experience evolved as a result of extensive reading. It is my understanding of these central tenets based on the work of Husserl and Heidegger that have informed and confirmed my philosophical position.

4.7 Defining phenomenology

Phenomenology is an inductive qualitative approach to research (Reiners, 2012:15) and is described by Finlay (2013:172) as an 'umbrella term' which encompasses both

a philosophy and a methodological approach to research. In the early stages of my research journey, Finlay's comments seemed almost paradoxical as I wrestled with understanding this dualistic description of phenomenology. Further reading clarified my understanding that the diverse range of approaches and ways of conducting phenomenological research stem from a range of philosophical traditions of phenomenology (Errasti-Ibarrondo et al., 2018:1724) which have been refined and developed over time (Errasti-Ibarrondo et al., 2018; Finlay, 2013; Kafle, 2011). As Errasti-Ibarrondo et al. (22018:1732) conclude, phenomenology is a 'heterogeneous research methodology whose philosophical fundamentals and assumptions lay down the guidelines for the entire research process.' Fundamental to my understanding of phenomenology as a philosophical position therefore was an exploration of the philosophical traditions as part of my research journey.

4.8 The origins of phenomenology

The origin of the phenomenological movement is attributed to Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) a German philosopher who, as a result of his philosophical works, challenged the approaches to scientific research prevalent at that time (Welton, 2003; Reiners, 2012). For Husserl, phenomenology as a philosophy concerns itself not with facts but with experiences and for him the importance of experience is the cornerstone of scientific truth. While for some scholars this concept can be easily understood and tacitly accepted, for the 'perplexed' researcher like myself it is a challenging concept to critique for two reasons (Welton, 2003; Russell, 2006; Giorgi and Giorgi, 2008). Firstly the originality and innovation of Husserl's ideas as he developed and refined them and secondly for the Germanic roots of his work and the challenges of

interpretation of some quite esoteric concepts and thoughts (Welton, 2003:3) While I recognise the criticisms of Giorgi and Giorgi (2008:168) who state the interpretation of Husserl's philosophy by researchers using secondary sources may lead to misinterpretation of these esoteric concepts and thoughts, Russell (2006:25) offers some clarity to Husserl's original text and will be used in this thesis as a principle source for exploring the central tenets of phenomenology as a philosophical position.

In his early work Logische Untersuchungen (1900–1901, cited in Peters, 2009:1), Husserl posited that the positivist approach to investigation by the natural sciences which became the dominant ideology in the early 1900s stifled the development of scientific knowledge and resulted in developing a limited understanding of the world (Eagleton, 1983, cited in Groenewald, 2004:43). As Husserl himself comments 'merely fact minded sciences make merely fact minded people' (Husserl, 1970:6). For Husserl the study of the natural world 'through direct experience of those objects' (Russell, 2006:22) was incomplete and contributed only to extending knowledge of those objects in the physical world which were observable and verifiable. What was needed was 'an entirely new method of distinguishing it in principle from any natural science' (ibid). These observations are pertinent to my own research journey which seeks to explore the more abstract and less tangible aspects of beliefs, perceptions and values. In selecting phenomenology, it is the rejection of positivism by Husserl which conforms with my choice of philosophical position and adds weight to my convictions that this thesis is rooted in the non-positivist qualitative paradigm.

Husserl developed a 'descriptive phenomenology' (Reiners, 2012:2) in which the emphasis is on epistemology, what an individual knows about the world and their reality, and their description of the object or phenomenon in the world. Husserl's new method of research stemmed from his belief that in the quest for truth, research must seek to go beyond what is observable, it must be 'transcended to discover reality' (Kafle, 2011:186). Researching the human experience of a phenomenon included not only the empirical knowledge of what is observable, but what Husserl terms the 'essence,' the reality of this experience as it manifests itself in the physical world. Here the essence of a phenomenon is distinct and universal (Laverty, 2003:67) and is situated in the individual's experience of the object, the phenomenon. Through this experience, our 'natural cognition of the world' (Russell, 2006: 22), individuals intentionally direct their attention so that they can explore and construct their understanding about a phenomenon in the physical world and what it means to them. These experiences can be 'contemplated and unpacked' (ibid) to reveal the universal properties of the phenomenon and it is this emphasis on exploring and constructing the individual experience which resonates with my thesis. While the focus on the universal properties of a phenomenon allude to the more generalisable features of a positivist approach, Husserl's approach was radically different. In the positivist, scientific domain, the object can be studied and tested, conversely in phenomenology it is those who have experienced the phenomenon who can give an account of and share their perceptions of what it is *actually* like (italics my own) (Cronin and Armour, 2015; Heidegger, 1996). As Russell (2006:25) explains the premise of the universal properties of a phenomenon according to Husserl are based in the understanding that, 'If we want to know about actuality, we need to consult experience.' It is Husserl's entreaty to the research community of the time to explore

the essence of an object in the physical world which is a central tenet of the various branches of phenomenology (Dall'Alba, 2009:7). In short, the aim of phenomenological studies is to explore the essence of an object, a phenomenon in the physical world by focussing on the subjective experience of 'individuals who have lived through similar events and circumstances'(Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:173).

This perspective was not entirely new as Husserl built on the work of Kant's transcendental philosophy (Russell, 2006:44) to construct what Husserl terms in his later works transcendental phenomenology (ibid). In establishing these two facets of knowledge, the phenomenon and the experience of that phenomenon for the individual, Husserl sought to achieve 'radically unprejudiced knowledge' (Ethridge, 2003:4). At the pinnacle of developing this new philosophical position Husserl determined that this pure unprejudiced knowledge could be reached by suspending personal assumption and prejudices to reach the 'essence' of an individual's experience of a phenomenon. A core tenet of Husserlian phenomenology therefore is related to the centrality of intentionality positing that all prior knowledge of an object /phenomenon can be reduced and subsequently put on one side to enable a subjective account of an individual's directed awareness, their consciousness, about that object or phenomenon (Peters, 2009; Reiners, 2012). To describe this state of being reached by way of the transcendental reduction (Finlay, 2008:2), Hussserl adopted the Greek term 'epoché,' a 'conscious process of identification and subsequent quarantine of naturally occurring thoughts and patterns' (Moustakas, 1994, cited in Sheehan, 2014:12). This suggests that in ascribing to Husserlian transcendental phenomenology I must reach epoché through reduction: I must suspend my personal assumption, my

knowledge and understanding about the world I am researching so that I can view it through my research participants' eyes. As Merleau-Ponty (1945, cited in Finlay, 2013:176) concludes 'in order to see the world we must break with our familiar acceptance of it.'

4.9 The reduction in phenomenological research

For Husserl, the reduction was a 'radical self-meditative process' (Finlay, 2013:176) which enabled the philosopher to rise above scientific truths and ontological assumptions. Employing the reduction meant that they could put aside everyday experiences and occurrences so that (s/he) could reflect on and therefore see the real meaning of the object of study, the 'essence' of the phenomenon. As Butler (2016:2040) explains:

> Once I put away my natural understandings, it becomes possible to arrive at a new understanding of the phenomenon based purely on the essential characteristics of the phenomenon itself.

Here the tension between phenomenology as a philosophy and as a method begin to surface and it is these tensions which can result in misconceptions and unsatisfactory research processes (Finlay, 2008; Lowes and Prowse, 2001). In phenomenological

research Butler (2016:2036) posits that achieving epoché through reduction is problematic. In his writing Husserl explained the process of epoché in a number of ways with each iteration becoming more refined as his own understanding of phenomenology as a philosophy evolved and it was in his later writings that he described the process using the figurative term of 'bracketing' (Russell, 2010, cited in Butler, 2016:2038). Additionally, Finlay (2009:5) posits that the pure reflection that Husserl advocates as a philosopher is not the remit of the phenomenological researcher who is tasked with 'reflexive analysis of descriptions of lived in experiences.' Notwithstanding these concerns, Moustakas (1994, cited in Sheehan, 2014:10) comments that in phenomenological research the setting aside, the bracketing of all preconceived ideas, is fundamental to ensuring systematic and rigorous procedures as it enables (researchers) to see phenomena 'through unclouded glasses thereby allowing the true meaning of phenomena to naturally emerge with and within their own identity.' Unquestionably the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity is complex yet is acknowledged as a significant aspect of phenomenological research (Giorgi, 2006; Reiners, 2012: Conklin, 2014). It is therefore important that as a researcher I understand what is meant by this in the context of phenomenological research. This will be explored later in this thesis (see section 5.7)

Notwithstanding these tensions, adopting the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity in my research posed significant challenges for me as a researcher. The reality of achieving neutral and unbiased knowledge by focusing on what is in our minds and 'breaking with our familiar acceptance of it' (Merleau-Ponty, 1996:96) seemed to be daunting. My own knowledge and understanding of ITE and furthermore

my role as a UPL for SD in one of the Alliances in which I was researching meant that I was rooted to some extent in aspects of the lived-in experience I was exploring. These challenges concur with the findings of Ganeson and Ehrich (2009:95) who comment that it can be demanding for the researcher to suspend their own experiences when they are in fact researching an area that they are familiar with. Ashworth and Lucas (2000:141) go further in suggesting it to be impossible to set aside one's own assumptions and preconceptions in order to remain open and unbiased to the

'descriptions (of others) and reach an understanding of what they say.' Additionally, while I agreed with the central tenets of Husserl's phenomenology, I was uneasy about adopting a 'descriptive' approach as a fundamental aim of my research was that my research would explore the decision to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT and my findings would give HTs a voice through interpreting these findings. Given my own knowledge of the context and the legislation behind the move to more school-led ITT alongside of my role as a UPL, I struggled with conceptualising how I could achieve this. Moore (2012:11) comments that this is a common dilemma for qualitative researchers who are often part of the social group which they are researching. She maintains that the researcher is already 'a native, indigenous, inside' (Moore, 2012:11) even before the research is undertaken which brings its own predicaments related to methodological decisions and validity of the data in the research process. It was important that I clarify my position as researcher early in my research journey so that I was aware of where my voice as opposed to the HTs' voices might be heard.

4.10 Researcher positionality

Dwyer and Buckle (2009:54) emphasise the importance of acknowledging what they describe as 'the impact of insider/ outside epistemology' which they suggest is an emerging trend in current qualitative research. Over the years the discourse of the social sciences, particularly in education, has navigated its way through the dualist tension of the language of insider/outsider researcher specifically in relation to the objectivity and clarity that these two roles can bring to the research (Rosaldo, 1989 cited in Thomson and Gunter, 2011:8). Ritchie et al. (2009:106) suggest there has been a 'blurring' of this separation. For them the language of insider/outsider can be understood by the researcher acknowledging 'the extent of their psychological and physical distance from the phenomenon being studied' (ibid) that is, how familiar the researcher is with the phenomenon to be researched and how immersed in it. Reflecting on my own research journey, I would agree to some extent with Ritchie et al. (2009), however I would go further to suggest that insider/outsider status is a continuum and that in phenomenological research, researcher positionality can be in a state of flux. In the initial stages of my research while I acknowledged being rooted to some extent in the lived-in experiences I was exploring, as a lecturer in Higher Education I was not one of the group I was studying. Furthermore, based on my perception of an insider/outsider continuum I believed I was at a distance from the phenomenon I was studying and towards the outsider boundaries of this continuum as I had no experience as a HT and the majority of participants were not known to me. My decision to adopt this position was influenced further by Thomson and Gunter (2011:18) who observed that the strengths of outsider researcher lie in the potential to bring a new perspective which is not rooted in familiarity with the context or politics of the phenomenon being studied. Consequently, as an outsider researcher the

opportunity to study the phenomenon with 'fresh eyes' (ibid) whilst being detached from the subject or participants under scrutiny is helpful in maintaining impartiality (Asselin, 2003 cited in Dwyer and Buckle 2009:55). I believed I emulated the detachment and impartiality that Asselin (2003) described.

Despite my concerns and as a result of my growing understanding of the principles of phenomenology, I remained persuaded that this philosophical position enabled me to answer my three main research questions. In the context of my thesis phenomenology would allow me as the researcher to uncover the HTs' own views of their experiences in the preparation of future teachers as they (the HTs) immersed themselves and operated in the phenomenon of school-led ITT. It is this conscious experience of a group of HTs in the lived-in world in their first year of taking the lead which I was keen to explore. Additionally, the decision to use phenomenology was forged through my growing understanding of the work of Bourdieu (1990), particularly his understanding of structure and agency and his conceptualisation of this through habitus and its associated concepts of field and cultural capital (Reed-Danahay, 2005:155). Responding to RQ1 and RQ2, my analysis in chapter three (see section 3.1.2) set out the relevance of this as a theoretical framework to explore the possible reasons why individuals make choices based on their personal histories and experiences. Here the work of Bourdieu informed my thinking and I suggested that these choices are made as a result of deeply held values and beliefs: it is the internal nature of our habitus which can potentially influence our actions. This is a significant point which relates to my choice of phenomenology as an approach for my research. As part of the theoretical basis for this thesis I posited that it is an individual's capacity to make their own choices that is significant to the relationship between

thought and action (see section 3.1.4). Consequently, the integrity of this statement exists in my acknowledgement that this capacity and relationship cannot reside solely with the objects of my research, in this thesis the HTs. In selecting phenomenology, I am acknowledging that the internal nature of my own habitus has impacted on the philosophical stance I have taken and the way I have conducted the research. Further reading on phenomenology suggested that the development of Husserl's principles by other philosophers, for example Sartre and Merleau -Ponty (cited in Smith, 2011:58) and in particular Heidegger (1996), offered insights and possibilities.

4.11 The intricacies of detached impartiality

Cerbone (2008:20) comments that unlike Husserl, Heidegger a student of Husserl based his approach to phenomenology on hermeneutics, the interpretation of the written word in sacred texts. While acknowledging the many merits of Husserl's accomplishments, not least in the advances in understanding of phenomenology as a philosophy and the notion of intentionality, Heidegger did not agree with Husserl and developed an alternative conception of phenomenology (Cerbone, 2008:20). For Heidegger it was impossible to ignore our own experiences of the world so that we could describe in a detached way the lived-in experience as it is viewed to those who are experiencing it. For the hermeneutic phenomenologist, description and interpretation have a symbiotic relationship 'we experience a thing as something that has already been interpreted' (Finlay, cited in Friesen, Henriksson and Saevi, 2012:22). Consequently, the concept of phenomenological reduction, specifically bracketing was rejected as, for Heidegger, understanding the meaning behind the description of how the individual views the world was essential. Rather the emphasis

was ontological, the nature of being, and that at the core of our understanding of the human world was our interpretation of it (Reiners, 2012; Peters, 2009; Miller and Cronin, 2013). This refutes the notion of certainty embedded in Husserl's approach and results in a more cyclical approach to the research. Having explored the lived-in experience of an individual it is unlikely that the researcher's own understanding of the object or phenomenon will remain unchanged. In short, the more exposure to the phenomenon that I as a researcher have, the more I come to know and understand the phenomenon and this understanding is derived from my own interpretation of what I have come to know. Cerbone (2008:31) explains that this approach 'makes explicit what is implicit and thereby affects what was until then implicit' (ibid). Interpreting the phenomenon rather than describing it led to the origin of 'hermeneutic phenomenology (Laverty, 2003:21) and it is this concept of phenomenology which informs my philosophical position. 'Hermeneutics moves beyond the description or core concepts of the experience and seeks meanings that are embedded in everyday occurrences' (Reiners, 2012:1).

4.12 The complexity of adopting phenomenology

As a researcher, navigating my way through phenomenology to establish my philosophical stance and my approach to research design was a significant undertaking. In the initial stages of my research journey clarifying my philosophical stance as that of a phenomenological researcher seemed almost intuitive given the focus of my research. I acknowledged the importance of the reduction set out in Husserlian descriptive phenomenology which would quieten my own voice and enable the subjective experiences of the participants to unfold and I embraced the liberty I

perceived hermeneutic phenomenology afforded in seeking meanings through interpreting the HTs' experiences of SD. For me, in the research design Husserlian phenomenology conflicted with hermeneutic phenomenology and, attempting to align myself within one of these two alternatives, Husserlian and hermeneutic, proved to be problematic. In an attempt to clarify my understanding, further reading of research using both of these approaches was needed. Through the writings of Finlay, a prolific writer in phenomenological research, I discovered that my polarisation of the two alternatives as an 'either or' position was not only unhelpful but created an unnecessary tension which formed a barrier to my research design. Finlay (2012 cited in Friesen, Henriksson and Saevi, 2012:22) suggests that the gap between description and interpretation is artificial and that this is more a 'continuum where specific work may be more or less interpretive.' She comments that interpretation in research of this nature is unavoidable as phenomenology is concerned with uncovering hidden meanings and perceptions and this move from the actual experience of an individual to the recounting of that experience by the researcher involves translation and interpretation of the experience. It is the degree of translation and interpretation by the researcher that is fundamental here and it is this acceptance of researcher subjectivity that must be transparent in phenomenological research (Greenbank, 2003:793). In this thesis subjectivity has been considered in part through researcher positionality (see section 4.10), however over the period of this study I came to understand that researcher subjectivity was also rooted in engaging the reduction, the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity. To this point in this thesis I have explored the concepts of bracketing and reflexivity in a philosophical context and acknowledged the importance and complexities of bracketing and reflexivity in phenomenological research (see section 5.7). Yet in the initial stages of my research the concepts seemed

abstract and while I remained persuaded by the central tenets of phenomenology, I was uncertain about the application of this in my research design and the impact of this on my analysis. This will be explored in more detail in chapter 5 of this thesis.

4.13 The selection of a method in research design

The selection of a method which underpins the research design is situated in the coherence of the research, the point where 'the research fits the postulations of the theory, when we work in a synchrony of epistemology, methodology and methods' (Todorova, 2011:35). I interpret this as the connection between my knowledge and understanding of both the phenomenon I am researching alongside the logical and pragmatic choices I make from the range of research methods available to me to explore my research questions. Having positioned myself in the qualitative, non-positivist paradigm and been informed by the central tenets of phenomenology (see section 4.8), I searched for phenomenological research methods which were 'responsive to both the phenomenon and the subjective interconnections between the researcher and the researched' (Finlay, 2013: 23). The complexities of adopting phenomenology have already been outlined in section 4.12 but in revisiting the warnings of Caelli (2001:275) I was mindful of the need to be 'judiciously informed by the philosophy that is held to guide them (the researcher)' (ibid), while navigating my way through the range of different research methods that are practised 'under the banner of phenomenological research' (Finlay, 2013:196). The result is a diverse array of methodological approaches embedded in various philosophical traditions, the foundations of which shape the research design (Errasti-Ibarrondo et al., 2018:1723). From this diverse array of methodological approaches available, further reading led

me in the first instance to consider those of Giorgi (2006) and Smith (2011) as they encompassed elements of the two different philosophical positions of phenomenology that I had been grappling with, Husserlian and hermeneutic. Both approaches are intrinsically phenomenological and have their origins in psychological phenomenological approaches (Hefferon and Gil-Rodriguez 2011). Each involve 'rich description of either the life world or lived experience' (Finlay, 2013:197) and require adopting the phenomenological attitude (see section 5.7). Despite these similarities, it is the philosophical origins of these approaches which make them distinct. Giorgi (2006) psychological method is strongly influenced by Husserlian phenomenology, descriptive in style and adhering to a rigid framework which encompasses the reduction (see section 4.9). Additionally, while the method explores individual accounts, the aim is to explore the phenomenon as a whole. In this thesis this would suggest that in utilising Giorgi (2006) psychological method the individual and unique experiences of the HTs would then be discarded as the method seeks to describe the general principles of the phenomenon by comparing these accounts (Eatough and Smith, 2008:128). Giorgi (2006) psychological method would appear to be in stark contrast to that of Smith and Osborn's (2008) Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) which is hermeneutic in its structure, seeks to understand in detail how individuals experience a phenomenon through 'rich, detailed, first person accounts' (Smith, 2011:75) and makes sense of this experience in a given context (Smith and Osborn, 2008 in Smith and Shinebourne, 2012: 242). Consequently, IPA is an idiographic approach, hermeneutic in nature (Smith, 2011; Hefferon and Gil-Rodriguez, 2011) where the emphasis is to 'explore personal lived experience, the meaning of experience to participants and how participants make sense of that experience' (Smith, 2011:9). While comparison of accounts can be a part of IPA, the

emphasis is on the individual nature of the account focussing on the particular rather than the general, one that begins 'with the detailed analysis of (case studies) and only cautiously moves to more general statements about groups of individuals' (Smith and Shineborne, 2012:73). In this thesis giving the HTs a voice by eliciting their first-person accounts of their experiences of the phenomenon, school-led ITT, was essential in enabling them to explore their perceptions of the phenomenon. Additionally, acknowledging the subtle nuances as to why they had made the choice to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT I felt was both noteworthy and important: 'they were the experts and could offer me an understanding' (IPA, O. F. 2005:20). This would suggest that utilising IPA to inform my research design would allow me as the researcher to focus on 'convergence and divergence within a participant groups' experience' (Hefferon and Gil-Rodriguez, 2011:757). Yet, as already outlined in section 4.12, in comparing these two approaches I was adopting an either/or position which formed a barrier to my research design. The challenges of this will be outlined in more detail in chapter 5.

4.14 Selection of the participants

It is important to point out that from a phenomenological position it is the selection process of the participants to be interviewed that is significant (Mears, 2009:75). Hycner (1999, cited in Groenewald, 2004:18) suggests that it is the phenomenon that dictates the participants to be selected as they must have experiences of the phenomenon to be researched, in this thesis the phenomenon of SD. Moreover, the sample will meet certain criteria which will enable them to explore in detail the key areas that the researcher intends to study. The criteria for participating in this study

linked directly with RQ1 and RQ2 of this thesis. Firstly, the participants must be HTs who have made the choice to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT secondly, they must have experience of working in partnership with HEI. I believed these HTs would also bring a personal perspective of ITE which underpinned their knowledge of working in partnership with HEIs to prepare future teachers. This knowledge would be based on their own experience of completing their QTS at either undergraduate level with QTS or postgraduate with QTS. In approaching HTs for the pilot study it could be argued that here I used opportunity sampling (McLeod, 2018), sampling based on the convenience of accessing HTs with whom I worked in partnership and who met the criteria of the study (see section 5.2). However, I felt that 3 HTs did not give a representative sample of my target group and following the pilot study, I approached and had informal discussions with the lead HTs of two SDA working in partnership with the HEI where I was employed who indicated they were keen to be involved in my research. From these discussions I contacted all of the 14 HTs across the two SD Alliances. This 'purposive sampling' (Ritchieert al., 2013:144) ensured that there was consistency in the topic being discussed as all HTs were experiencing the same phenomenon. Of the 14 HTs, 12 HTs confirmed they were willing to be involved, one declined, and another withdrew from the SD programme and consequently from the Alliance. In a phenomenological study such as this, Reid, Flowers and Larkin (2005) and Hefferon and Gil-Rodriguez (2011) comment that the optimum sampling size is usually a small group of no more than 10 participants as analysis is usually 'developed around substantial verbatim excerpts from the data' (Reid et al, 2005:21). This is particularly the case if using IPA as a technique for analysing the data, and analysis is considered more manageable for the researcher if there are smaller participant numbers. Applying

this to my own research this would suggest that manageability of data might be an issue. Reid et al. (2005:22) suggest, fewer participants examined in greater depth is preferable. However, the decision to interview 12 participants was one of impartiality as one Alliance had 7 HTs working together while the other had 5. Accordingly, the number of participants was dictated by the number of HTs working across the two SD Alliances who were willing to be interviewed.

Consequently, the research was carried out in two SDAs located in the North West of England and the focus of my research was the first-hand experiences of this group of HTs as they embarked on the first year taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT. As I outlined in section 1.4 of this thesis, each Alliance consisted of a lead school with a number of supporting schools and both alliances were working in partnership with an HEI provider in the North West of England reflecting the requirements of the White Paper (DfE, 2010). All of the HTs in the two SDAs had been involved in working in partnership with HEIs across a number of different routes into teaching over their careers. Diversity was brought to the research through the individual experiences of the HTs which allowed them to generate their own perceptions, perceptions which may or may not be similar interpretations of the phenomenon. Additionally, their experiences at both a professional and personal level provided a variety of practices and perspectives on ITE to explore their lived-in experiences of the phenomenon of school-led ITT.

4.15 Data collection in phenomenological research

Capturing and exploring the individual lived in experiences and exploring the meanings HTs gave to these experiences (Bathmaker, 2015:65) is fundamental to this thesis and aligns with the research aims to give participants a voice to explore their 'realities.' Consequently, it was critical to consider a data collection method which would give participants a voice to explore these experiences and perceptions and the opportunity to explain why schools might seek to move away from the traditional model of ITE. In selecting a suitable method, I was guided by Bevan (2014:137) who posits that in phenomenological research the value of the interview as a method of data collection is inextricably linked with recreating the lifeworld and this method would enable me to collect data which is grounded in the participants' experience to be drawn out (Galletta, 2013: 25). Punch and Oancea (2014:187) add further weight to this decision in commenting that interviews are useful in 'accessing people's perceptions, meanings, and definitions of situations and constructions of reality.'

As this was a one-year PGCE, I made the decision to collect data from the HTs at two points in the research process over this first year of taking the lead in ITT, with the first interviews planned between November 2014 at the beginning of the HTs' involvement with school-led ITT, and the second interviews planned in July 2015 at the end. Smith (2011:10) focusses the researcher in emphasising the significance of the type of interview, asserting that semi structured, or unstructured interviews provide the best means of capturing these lifeworld experiences as this method gives some flexibility to allow the interviewee the opportunity to expand on and develop some of the participant responses. Consequently, semi structured interviews were

selected for the first phase of data collection whereas I adopted unstructured interviews for the second phase of data collection. In adopting an unstructured approach, the 'interviewer and interviewee initiate questions and discuss topics' (Roulston, 2010;14). Nevertheless, I would agree with Barbour (2013) and Doody and Noonan (2013) who suggest that in reality the concept of an unstructured interview is a debatable term as there is still an inherent structure in relation to the content and focus of the research. The rationale behind this decision is explored in more detail in section 5.3. Each interview in both the first and second phase of data collection lasted for about one hour and began with assurances of confidentiality: participants were also reminded of their right to withdraw at any point in either interview. In all interviews with each of the 12 HTs I used audio recorders as I wanted to maintain my focus on the participants' responses and avoid distraction yet have an accurate and detailed permanent record of the interviews (Whiting, 2008:34).

4.16 Ethical Considerations

Gray (2014:69) comments that research must be conducted in a way which is responsible and uses the codes of conduct and ethical guidelines available to frame the research process. My research design required what Pring (2004:145) describes as 'principles of research' a process that must be based on honesty and transparency between myself and the HTs I interviewed. As I was asking my participants to share their perceptions and explore what they may feel was sensitive information, I too needed to be sensitive to the main ethical issues surrounding social research, ethical issues which Punch and Oancea (2014:50) identify as 'harm, consent, deception, privacy and confidentiality of data.' The ethical practices for this study were guided

by the university where I was employed during the period of my research, and my doctoral university. As Taber (2007:135) comments an important consideration of educational research is in ensuring that the interests and wellbeing of the participants are protected and that this should take priority over the self-interests of the researcher. This was particularly significant in this research given my role as a UPL for one of the two Alliances in the study and I had worked as a visiting tutor in the schools of the HTs from the second Alliance for a number of different programmes over my years as a tutor in the University. I felt that a lack of awareness or sensitivity to ensuring that these interests were protected could result in far reaching ramifications to the partnership between the schools and my own institution and so to protect the interests of the 12 HTs who had agreed to participate in this study ethical clearance was sought and obtained from the ethics committee at the university where I worked prior to the research being undertaken. A core function of the ethics committee is to scrutinise the research proposal to establish that the (human) participants are safeguarded as a result of rigorous procedures by the researcher to 'preserve confidentiality and anonymity, an enshrined principle in the qualitative research endeavour' (Barbour, 2013:81).

During the research I made every effort to ensure that ethical considerations were maintained, and I revisited these at key points in the research process. Maintaining ethical considerations was important at all points of the data collection and the following principles were adhered to in the pilot study, first and second interviews:

1. Assurances about confidentiality were revisited and assured at the beginning of each interview (Cohen et al. 2017:279) so that participants were clear that their

responses were confidential and participating HTs would remain anonymous (Barbour, 2013:83)

2. The participants were told they could stop the interview at any time if they felt uneasy with the interview (Grey, 2014:385)

3. That each respondent would be able to review a transcript of their first interview as part of the interview process and data would not be followed up if participants did not wish it to be.

Each of the 14 HT across the two SDAs were personally invited to take part in the study by e mail in the first instance and care was taken at the outset to ensure that participants were clear that participation in the research was voluntary and that they had the option to withdraw their consent at any time. In this initial contact I included a participant's information sheet which outlined the nature and purpose of the research so that the participants were clear about this and the dissemination of the research as part of my PhD thesis (McNiff, 2013:114). Based on the feedback from the 3 HTs in my pilot study (see section 5.2), I included the four key questions that would be asked in the first interview. I then contacted those 12 participants who had registered an interest by phone where further information about the data gathering process was discussed. This was to outline for the participants the time commitment of two interviews approximately six months apart. The interviews were then arranged at a date, time and place convenient to participants yet within the parameters of the time scale of the research (Yeo et al., 2014:237). As I was interviewing the participants in their professional capacity it was important to ensure that they were comfortable with the setting: for some, being in their school meant that they felt confidentiality might

be compromised (ibid). In one case the interview was arranged at a different location which was mutually convenient.

'Informed consent' (Holloway, 1997, in Groenewald, 2004 :45; Plas, Kvale and Kvale, 1996:91) was sought and gained from the 12 participants prior to the first of the two interviews. This informed consent included further information about the purpose and process of the research, the process for ensuring confidentiality and anonymity and that participation in the research was voluntary. It also included permission for the interviews to be recorded. Recording interviews can be challenging for participants and it was important for me to acknowledge that they may feel uneasy about this (Gray, 2014:385). In the initial design of my research the decision to record the interviews as opposed to taking detailed notes was taken for two reasons. Firstly, this gave me the opportunity to concentrate and focus on what the participants were saying and secondly, so that I could then transcribe each interview and have a detailed record for my analysis. As Gray (ibid) posits that 'there is no substitute for being able to see all the transcribed data…during the analysis stage.' However, as my understanding of phenomenology became more sophisticated then so too did the approach to my research and the significance of transcribing the data from each interview grew. As already stated, the pilot study prompted some amendments to my research design (see section 5.2). I adopted the process of memoing (see section 5.11) which included taking field notes of my observations of the behaviour of the HTs during the interview and noting my own reflections post interview (see section 5.11). In reviewing the ethical considerations for the study, I decided that this note taking could be construed as covert observations (Gray 2014:397) and that this had to be a transparent process in line with my ethical considerations. Consequently, after the

pilot study and as part of the remaining interviews I informed my participants that I would be observing their behaviour and making field notes about how they responded to the questions. This transparency was felt to be relevant to maintain the researcher/ participant relationship.

A significant ethical consideration for me given my researcher positionality was one of establishing trust between the respondent and myself when taking the role of interviewer. Pertaining to this, the selection of an appropriate interview style which gave participants a voice was key (see chapter 5.4). Giving them a voice also included the importance of giving them time to think by acknowledging silences without interruption and so at the beginning of each interview the respondent was reminded that they could decline to answer any of the questions after considering their answers (Newby, 2014:346). In this I was mindful of the fact that participants could be recounting key aspects of practice and opinion which they felt might identify them to others. Finally, during the transcription process, consideration was given to assigning HTs with an identifying marker. For ease of reference and to ensure confidentiality and anonymity this was kept simple and HTs were numbered 1-12.

4.17 Reviewing my methodological decisions

This chapter has sought to explore the methodological challenges I faced in my research. I have explained why I believe my research is rooted in the non-positivist, qualitative paradigm and outlined my philosophical position which furthermore confirms this belief. The chapter has provided a general background to the origins of

phenomenology as a philosophy and identified the importance of the central tenets to the extent that these have informed my methodology. In exploring the descriptive 'Husserlian' and interpretative 'Hermeneutic' traditions of phenomenological research the dilemmas of identifying my research as an 'either or' have been critiqued: the impact of researcher positionality and the tensions in applying 'the reduction' in phenomenological research have been presented as fundamental to this dilemma. In analysing the background to these the complexities of the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity have been critiqued and introduced as a significant aspect of my research journey, transforming my understanding of the research process and instrumental in shaping the research design and analysis. To conclude this chapter, my critique of the selection of IPA to inform my approach to the research prepares the reader for chapter 5 which reflets on the utilisation of phenomenological methodology as it relates to this thesis.

Chapter 5. Recreating the lifeworld: Reflections on the research process.

5.1 Introduction to the chapter

In this chapter I will critique how my chosen methodology of phenomenology underpinned and informed the research design for this thesis. Chapter five will outline the complexities of this as a method for research design and will chronicle how fulfilling the expectations of such a study was both perplexing and challenging and led to amendments at a number of points in the research process. It will set out that preparatory work prior to the first phase of data collection necessitated the implementation of a pilot study which was significant in developing my understanding of IPA and the application of phenomenological tools. The chapter reflects on and makes explicit the application of these tools and illustrates how my approach to the research for this study evolved from that of a naive researcher to one that was rooted in an intuitive and reflexive application of phenomenological processes. The practicalities of collecting and analysing large amounts of data in a phenomenological study are acknowledged and the technique of memoing will be introduced as a means of clarifying and enriching the data collection and the analysis at key points in the research process. Finally, in recreating the lifeworld of the HTs in this study the process of developing an idiographic approach to the analysis of the data while staying true to phenomenological principles will be outlined. Underpinning these choices and revisions the resolve to give HTs in this thesis a voice to explore their

values, beliefs and perception of the phenomenon of SD is evident throughout. This links with one of my research aims of giving HTs a voice to explore why schools would want to move away from the traditional model of ITE.

5.2 The initial stages of my research journey

In the initial stage of my research journey I felt compelled to adopt an approach to research design, yet I acknowledged that I lacked the breadth of knowledge to make an informed choice (chapter 4.5). The writings of Mellor (2001:4) resonated with my experience of the research at this point. In his article he outlines the process referred to by Baldamus (1976) of 'double fitting' which described where I believed I was at this stage in my journey. Mellor (2001:4) explains that double fitting is a progressive process in which the researcher is constantly reworking the theoretical frameworks which underpin their research; 'data help build a theory while at the same time the theory helps the researcher see the data in a new light .' Furthermore, Mellor (2007:4) posits a linear view of the research process which I believe I embodied at the start of the project:

Collect data - Analyse data - Write up.

To remove the barrier to research design and in the absence of any other options, I decided to embark on the first stage of Mellor's linear process and set out to conduct a pilot study.

In the first instance, conducting a pilot study was related to establishing the feasibility of the study and legitimising the PhD worthiness of the topic (Newby, 2014:345). However, this proved to be a significant part of my research journey in informing my understanding of phenomenology and shaping my research design. As Kim (2011:191) emphasises, the pilot study sets out to 'ensure that methods or ideas [would] work in practice and to test protocols for the research process.' Furthermore, in outlining the relevance of this process to conducting interviews and data analysis my intent is to conform with what Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002:34) consider is the 'ethical obligation' of the researcher being transparent in all areas of the research process. The move from informal conversations with HTs to the formal opportunities afforded by a pilot study, helped me identify key questions in relation to my research focus and was an important step in confirming my philosophical position (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2002 ; Kim, 2011). As a novice researcher with limited experience of the scope and remit of a pilot study, I felt it was useful to review the published literature relating to how to conduct such a study. Interestingly this review proved to have limited success, particularly in relation to education. Blessing and Chakrabarti (2009:114) suggest that the use of pilot studies have been largely undervalued in qualitative research whereas Watson, Atkinson and Rose (2007:619) suggest that the lack of published material is often related to 'confusion in terminology,' a lack of clarity by authors who describe their procedures under the title of a pilot study/feasibility study 'where (the study) has clearly generated findings that have value in their own right' (ibid) as opposed to solely informing research design. Notwithstanding this confusion, my search resulted in mainly feasibility studies for quantitative, clinical studies (Lancaster, Dodd and Williamson, 2004; Padget, 2008, cited in Kim, 2011) yet I considered that these research experiences were still useful

groundwork for my own pilot study. As a naive researcher in the field of phenomenological research, I felt that a lack of preparation at this stage could undermine the validity and reliability of my thesis. The lessons learned from undertaking this process proved invaluable in clarifying my understanding of the process of bracketing and in developing my reflexive skills (see chapter 5.6). As Kim (2011:190) posits:

> the pilot exercise relates to identifying specific methodological and epistemological issues so that researchers can affirm, sharpen, or revise how to pursue and achieve their goals in their proposed studies.

Based on my understanding of data collection in phenomenological research I had decided on using a semi structured style of interview (see section 4.15) and had planned two key questions which I wished to pilot.

1. What are your reasons for being involved in School Direct?
2. What do you hope to gain from this involvement?

In line with my understanding of phenomenological principles at that point, I felt that these two questions were ‘open and expansive, encouraging participants to talk at

length' (Smith and Shinebourne, 2012:76). I believed that these two key questions would act as a prompt to enable the HTs to explore the lived-in experience of SD and share their perceptions of taking the lead.

The pilot study was conducted in the term prior to the beginning of the academic year in which I intended to collect the data for my thesis. At this point I was working in partnership with three HTs from one newly formed SDA which I supported as UPL and these three HTs were contacted by e mail in the first instance. Each HT accepted and at the beginning of the interview in accordance with ethical considerations (see section 4.16) I was careful to set out the purpose and scope of the research by providing a participant information sheet and seeking ethical consent. In each of the three interviews I reaffirmed that I was exploring the understanding of 'someone else's world,' the perceptions of HTs and their experiences of taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT, and it was my intention to 'discover' that world. I was aware that my working relationship with the HTs may be a barrier to exploring these understandings and so I explained that for the purposes of the interview I would adopt a different role to that of the UPL, the role of the 'researcher .' I recorded the interviews with the permission of the participants and kept field notes where I logged the non-standard data which could not be recorded. These 'in situ observations' (Mulhall, 2003:311) of the way the HTs responded to my questions was sometimes as important as what they said. So, to complement the verbal responses from the face to face interview and 'add contextual depth to the data,' (ibid) I also noted any gestures, intonations, or facial expressions as part of my data collection in all remaining interviews. As Opdenakker (2006:25) comments this

‘synchronous communication,’ can give the interviewer additional information to the spoken answer given by the participant.

As I was researching a phenomenon that I had experience of I was conscious that there would be ‘some shared knowledge and language’ (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975 cited in Hatch, 2002:98) which I felt might lead to my voice being heard in my research as opposed to the participants. Throughout the three pilot interviews, in line with the central tenets of phenomenology, I utilised the key principles of Husserl which I believed concurred with my philosophical position at that point in my research journey. I attempted to practice the reduction (see section 4.9) to ’bracket’ what I understood to be my own prior knowledge and understanding in an attempt to present myself as neutral and unbiased (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009:60) so that I could enter into the participants’ reality (Miller and Crabtree, 1992, cited in Groenewald, 2004:12). In bracketing, I considered that I was positioning myself as an ‘outsider researcher’ (Thomson and Gunter, 2011:18) which I believed would be an asset in eliciting the perceptions of the HTs and helping them clarify their understanding of school-led ITT (Merriam et al., 2001.:410).

However, in my post interview reflections of the pilot study it was clear from the uncertain responses of the HTs and the subsequent analysis of the transcripts that these two key questions combined with my handling of the interviews lacked the flexibility to give the HTs the opportunity to explore their experiences effectively. In reflecting on each interview prior to the next, I felt that despite listening carefully and attentively and using these two open questions to elicit the meaning of their

experience and perceptions, my rigid approach formed a barrier to the free flow style of interview that I had anticipated. In my small scale analysis of the interview transcripts I had descriptive accounts of why participants choose to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT but no real sense of why they had taken the decision, despite this being my first question. The data yielded little information about the impact of the SD model of ITT on ITE or the impact on partnerships between schools and HEI. I concluded that my interview style was undisciplined, and my two questions flawed, resulting in my giving 'mixed messages' to the participants. For example, I had exposed a tendency to 'get involved' in the interview either by use of body language - an affirming nod for example - or by my response to the participants: a verbal statement of agreement in one case. While I felt this could be interpreted by the participants as encouraging them to explore their realities, I was also mindful that it could be interpreted as an affirmation that they had got the 'correct answer' which could change the dynamics of the interview and affect the quality of the data (Hatch, 2002:102). Additionally, my rigid adherence to 'the reduction' emulated Giorgi (2006) psychological method, emphasising the reduction and description of the participants experiences and this threatened to undermine and jeopardise the synchrony that Todorova (2011) described (see section 4.13). I was reluctant to expand on the questions asked to develop the natural occurring free flow style of interview which I aspired to. I noticed that I had needed to ask all three HTs to explore these implications further as this was not a naturally occurring feature of their responses to either question, yet it was a research aim. A tension arose between designing an approach to the interview which enabled the participants to be free to share their perceptions in line with the aims of my research, while acknowledging where my own researcher positionality and my understanding of phenomenological

research methods (at that time) could either inhibit or help to create this freedom (Smith and Osborn, 2008 in Smith and Shinebourne, 2012: 242) These reflections and conclusions were a pivotal stage in moving along the continuum from descriptive towards a more interpretative approach to phenomenology and were both enlightening and limiting, leading to a shift in researcher positionality (see section 4.10). In developing my knowledge and understanding (epistemology) of both phenomenological research design (methods) and legitimising and embracing the central tenets of phenomenology in my study (methodology) I was engaging in the synchronous process which brought coherence to my research (Todorova, 2011;35). The need to address researcher positionality and create the opportunity for respondents to explore new paths led to further reading in phenomenological methods and resulted in a change in my own perceptions of the research process, and amendments to the research process. I was removing the barrier to research design.

5.3 Establishing the context

Consequently, the pilot study informed and shaped the research design in two areas: firstly, in developing key interview questions which would create opportunities for respondents to share their perceptions, and secondly, addressing issues of researcher positionality through refining my approach to conducting interviews. Despite interviews being the preferred method of data collection, my search for procedures for carrying out phenomenological interviews produced limited results (Quay, 2016; Bevan, 2014; Giorgi, 2006). However, Bevan's paper 'A Method of phenomenological interviewing' (2014) collated a range of research in this area which, although focussing on descriptive as opposed to interpretative phenomenology,

proved useful in informing my research design and ensured that this would adhere to phenomenological principles. Significantly, Giorgi (1997, cited in Bevan, 2014:137) established the importance of the interviewer giving the participant the opportunity to articulate their views in the context of the lifeworld. In this thesis this meant re-evaluating my rigid interpretation and understanding of the process of bracketing and designing an interview style which was flexible enough to respond to the participants. This would allow the HTs to recount their experiences of the phenomenon of school-led ITT, while enabling me to explore my research questions. At this stage in my research journey, I acknowledged that I was still rooted in the habits of my previous research experience of conducting interviews. Here, designing interview questions was more in line with trying to minimise the 'interactional context' (De Fina and Perrino, 2011:1) in the belief that this would enable me to 'access their [the respondents'] natural behaviour' (ibid) and add rigour and viability to my research. Consideration of the juxtaposition of these two purposes led to a clearer understanding of the interview process based on phenomenological principles (see chapter 4.6).

As a result of this analysis and these reflections, I concluded that the interpretive approach of Smith and Osborn (2008), seemed to be more compatible with my research aims and I endeavoured to embed these phenomenological practices in the first phase of data collection beginning November 2014. The priority in this first phase was to structure the interview so that the participants had the chance to explore the context, the background to their involvement and their perceptions of the phenomenon of SD as a model of ITE. I reviewed my two key questions and revised the wording of the first key question to become '*wanting* to be involved' as opposed to '*being* involved, a subtle revision which aligned the interview question with RQ1

and gave the opportunity for the HTs to give their personal account of why they had made the choice to take the lead in ITT. From here I developed question 2 to become three areas for discussion and framed these as key questions to focus the response in relation to the benefits of SD for both students and schools and finally to explore the perceived impact of SD on HEIs. In being able to follow up on areas which may be of concern or importance to the participants rather than adhering to the rigid form of a structured interview which follows 'a predetermined and standardised list of questions' (Longhurst, 2003:144), I believed I would be able to gain a deeper understanding of HTs' decisions to become involved in school-led ITT. While key question one was essential in setting the scene and getting the participants to focus on the research, key questions 2-4 were not necessarily explored in order to provide an opportunity for free flow dialogue (Doody and Noonan, 2013:32). As Smith (2011:76) comments, in phenomenological research:

> as the dialogue evolves, the researcher may decide to vary the order of the questions or to make space for a novel perspective that has not been anticipated but appears particularly pertinent to the participant.

I was hopeful that these descriptive, context-based questions would generate a wealth of data as they prompted the participants to explore the essence of the phenomenon, what they knew about taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT and their reality of it (see section 4.8). Additionally, in line with

my research aims, the use of these open-ended questions would give the HTs the opportunity for their voice to be heard. As Roulston (2010:16) confirms, this type of question is 'particularly useful in providing a format for interviewees to answer in their own words.' Consequently, the response to these questions would not only establish the context but would also begin to open the door to exploring the lived-in experiences.

As a result of these revisions, the four questions for the remaining interviews were as follows.

1. What are your reasons for being involved in School Direct?

2. What do you consider to be the benefits of this school-led route of ITT for the student?

3. What do you consider to be the benefits of this school-led route of ITT for the school?

4. What implications does this school-led route into ITT have on the traditional model of university led ITE?

Refining and developing my key questions in this way ensured that the data collected aligned with my three research questions and strengthened the validity and reliability of the thesis (see section 4.9). In line with my growing understanding of phenomenological research methods, revising these (four) key questions became a useful process in helping me to consider how to apply the dual process of bracketing

and reflexivity, that is to adopt the phenomenological attitude (see section 5.6). Thinking through areas which may be challenging prior to each interview became part of the reflexive process, helping me to bracket ideas and knowledge, to quieten my own voice and limit my opportunities to 'get involved.' In this way I believed I could maintain a detached impartiality (see chapter 4.11) so that the HT's voice as opposed to mine would be heard.

5.4 The purpose and practice of the interview

Having adopted phenomenology as my philosophical stance I needed to revise my previously held perceptions of the purpose and practice of interviews for this thesis. The relevance of interviews as a data collection method in phenomenological research has been outlined in section 4.15 as a 'powerful method for capturing the experiences and lived meanings' (Kvale, 2008 :11) of the HTs and in the first phase of interviews I remained convinced that my four questions gave me the opportunity to explore and probe 'interesting issues that arise' (Smith and Osborn, 2008:233).

As I have established in my discussion of Bourdieu, based on my understanding of the concept of habitus (see section 2.3.4) I was conscious that these answers/narratives resided in the history of the participant and may need me to clarify previous experiences that the participant had had of the preparation of future teachers in order to elicit meaning. I was also mindful that this required skilled listening and sensitivity to what the HTs were telling me about these experiences (Gillham, 2005:8). In the early stages of the first phase of data collection I acknowledged my shift along the continuum of the outsider researcher (see section 4.10) and the impact of this in

achieving detached impartiality (see section 4.11). I recognised that my role was to listen carefully to the responses of each of the participants. Any follow up questions would be solely to clarify their experiences and to ascertain that I had understood their view and was representing this correctly. In line with phenomenological approaches, I attempted to bracket my prior knowledge and experience of the phenomenon and be reflexively engaged in helping participants to articulate their understanding of the phenomenon and the implication of this for the future of ITT (see section 5.5). In any follow up questions, I adopted language which mirrored that of the participants. Keeping their own words was essential so that their voice, as opposed to mine, could be heard. Over the first three interviews I developed a core of responses which included *'you mentioned…. can you describe that in more detail?... you spoke about ... can you tell me more about this?'* This resulted in a more rigorous approach to interviewing which saw 'the respondent as a vessel of answers and the interviewer as a neutral interrogator' (Holstein and Gubrium, 2016:145) and one which resulted in me developing my interview technique so that I could move from the actual experiences that the participant had recounted to the translation and interpretation of that experience.

5.5 An interpersonal drama

From these experiences, I reconceptualised Giorgi's two-tiered approach to interviewing (1997, cited in Bevan, 2014:137) in relation to my research. While Giorgi (1997) argued that this was a separate process, one of obtaining a description of the context and one of eliciting meaning, in my research this became a simultaneous process where my four key questions set the context and my follow up

questions elicited meaning. In each interview I adopted the mantle of a 'deliberate naïveté' (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2009, cited in Bevan 2014: 138) and applied the phenomenological attitude 'bracketing' my own pre-experiences of the world and abstaining 'from the use of personal knowledge' (ibid). I developed my follow up questions using shared terminology and knowledge of the preparation of future teachers and this prompted the participants to share *their* experiences [italics my own]. Over the period of these first interviews this became a reflexive process (see section 5.6) as I used clarifying language to elicit meaning: for example (italics my own), *'you mentioned… tell me about what this meant to you?... tell me how you feel this experience is different for you ….:* Hermanns (2004: 219) likens this to 'an interpersonal drama with a developing plot.' Reflecting on this, interviewing became an active, dynamic process for both me and the participant where we co-constructed their unique experiences and perceptions of taking the lead by way of the SD model of ITT, which involved myself and the participants developing the narrative of this drama in co-constructing their unique experiences and perceptions of taking the lead in ITE by way of the SD model of ITT. Furthermore, this interactive and interpretative process gave the participants the opportunity to voice the realities of their decision and enabled me to gain a deeper understanding of this decision in relation to my research questions. As Holstein and Gubrium (2016:105) suggest, 'meaningful reality is constituted at the nexus of the *how's* and the *what's* of experience, by way of interpretative practice.' In this interpretative practice my role was to 'be a student of the interviewee, learning as much about the topic of enquiry as possible through sensitive questioning' (Roulston, 2010 :17). It was essential to keep my thoughts and ideas transparent (Silverman, 2013:210), to actually *listen* (to what they were saying) as opposed to *hearing* their voices. In actively listening to the participants and posing

open ended questions I enabled them to explore their experiences related to the focus of the research.

5.6 My reflexive processes

Over the period of this study, further reading of and experience in the research process brought with it a more sophisticated understanding of the importance of reflexivity in my research in two areas. Firstly, in highlighting reflexivity as being one of the significant aspects of phenomenological research (Finlay, 2008:2), and secondly as a process of moving my own understanding of the research process forward and the impact of this in shaping the research design and analysis.

Finlay (2002:212) comments that reflexivity 'has a firm place within the qualitative research agenda' but it continues to be a contested term (Finlay, 2014; Vagle, 2010), ostensibly in the way it is often cited as a means of justifying the rigour and authenticity of phenomenological research and utilised to limit the subjectivity of the researcher (Paley, 1997; Greenbank, 2003). For example, Scott and Usher (2010:21) suggest that reflexivity is about 'exploring how meanings, including the meanings given to and generated by research, are discursively constructed within the research process.' Yet, the explicit use of reflexivity by researchers to ensure that the data are trustworthy and reliable has been challenged as a 'regretful backward glance to positivist ideals' (Finlay, 2002:211). Gabriel (2015:333) goes further by observing that this is reflexivity in its simplest form, 'a pretentious synonym for reflection,' which does little to acknowledge the complexity of the practice of reflexivity by the researcher. He posits that citing reflexivity as part of research design for the purpose

of ensuring validity is reductionist and questions the legitimacy of the practice of reflexivity in some qualitative research. With a myriad of possible practices, defining reflexivity becomes problematic (Gabriel, 2015; Finlay, 2012). Darawsheh (2014:560) suggests that reflexivity is a 'continuous process of self-reflection that researchers engage in to generate awareness about their actions, feelings and perceptions ' He posits that in qualitative research the findings are a fusion of the 'perspectives of the researcher and participants' (ibid) and that reflexivity is the means by which the researcher accurately recounts these perspectives. Furthermore, Darawsheh (2014:560) observes that it is this lack of understanding of what reflexivity actually is which has as resulted in it being underused effectively in qualitative research. In the initial stages of my research I considered that the reductionist nature of the practice of reflexivity was evident. In striving to remain objective and give a voice to the HTs I was continually 'reflecting' on where my own knowledge and understanding of the SD model of ITT might be tainting my understanding of what was being recounted: I was attempting to quieten my own inner voice by engaging in the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity. In a return to the 'naive researcher' I was adopting the role of a relatively passive observer, collecting data which described the experiences of the HTs as opposed to interpreting their perceptions. I believed this was limiting the richness of the data I was collecting and sought out the fusion of perspectives that Darawsheh (2014:560) identified.

5.7 Maintaining the phenomenological attitude

I recognised my misconception of reflexivity in further reading of Hertz (1996:7) who over two decades ago observed that researchers are now acknowledged as active participants in their research. In an attempt to redefine my understanding of what this

actually meant in my own research, the work of Finlay (2008) was instrumental. In an exploration of reflexivity in current phenomenological research practices Finlay (2008:6) suggests that adopting the 'phenomenological attitude' is an important first step. Here the researcher applies the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity, containing pre-experience of the phenomenon by bracketing, while still being open to a sense of awe and wonder in the world. Finlay (ibid) posits that utilising the phenomenological attitude takes place in a relational context, a complex and intricate process whereby the researcher consciously strives to suspend their own knowledge and understanding yet remain open to where this knowledge and understanding could provide perceptions and understanding. Gabriel (2015:33) provides further insights and suggests that reflexive activity is introspection which happens in the moment is one where 'subject and object co-create themselves' (ibid). The consciously reflexive researcher is aware of the impact of 'self' on the research by means of how she defines 'the self' and additionally how (her) values and beliefs may be challenged and may change. According to Gabriel (2015:33) undertaking this research and engaging in this reflexive process could potentially re-define who I am, what values and beliefs I hold, and my views on the world in which I am researching. Here, reflexivity is seen as a transformative process, 'whose end will see them (the researcher) emerge as different subjects' (Gabriel 2015:33). In my own research journey acknowledging this was a transformative process was both energising and daunting. I had tacitly accepted that I would develop my own knowledge and understanding in my research area but had not fully acknowledged that this transformation might extend to my values and beliefs. Additionally, the shift in my own understanding towards reflexivity as an introspective active process developed over the period of the research to the point whereby in embracing reflexivity as an active process, I understood what the detached

impartiality I had been consumed with and striving for was really like in practice. I became more consciously reflexive in quietening my own inner voice during the interviews and later in the analysis so that I could listen to the voices of the HTs and explore their perceptions with them rather than merely hearing and recounting what they said. Churchill (1999, cited in Finlay 2008:16) proposes that this is an 'empathetic dwelling' a dual process whereby the researcher still attempts to put aside their own experiences yet tries to view the world from the experience of the participants. In my research this empathetic dwelling meant that I could explore the perceptions of the HTs through a more interpretive approach as opposed to describing their experiences: this was particularly evident in the latter stage of the first phase of data collection and beyond (see section 5.4). By acknowledging that I was engaged in a reflexive process during both the interviews and the data analysis I became more aware of co-constructing the research process with my participants. Here the concept of what Finlay (2002:217) terms 'reflexivity as mutual collaboration' informed my research and in the second interviews I encouraged the participants to be reflexive by giving them the opportunity to help me modify and hone my interpretations of what they said in their first interview (see section 5.10).

Paradoxically, in attempting to justify how I have used reflexivity to minimise the impact of myself as a researcher on my own study, there is a danger that I have achieved the opposite. Having established that reflexivity is an introspective, active process I have been compelled to 'reflect' and critique this to validate it as an essential part of my identity as a researcher: as Finlay (2002:272) comments 'researchers are damned if they do and damned if they don't .' However, in outlining my reflexive

processes my purpose is to be transparent in my understanding of reflexivity and my awareness of the complexity of utilising this in my research.

5.8 Data analysis in phenomenological research

Having rejected the rigidly Husserlian method advocated by Giorgi (1997, cited in Bevan 2014:137), I referred to the fundamentals of IPA for guidance in data analysis. In this approach, data analysis occurs when the interviews are completed and transcribed. At this point the researcher can then immerse themselves in the complete data set (Finlay, 2012; Smith, 2011; Thomas, 2006) and the process then begins for a systematic search for themes that arise out of the data (Smith and Osborn, 2008; Laverty, 2003) with the intent to forge connections between these themes and subordinate themes in each transcript. Smith, Flower and Larkin (2009, cited in Finlay 2014a:127) describe this process as a 'double hermeneutic' whereby the researcher makes sense of the respondent making sense of the phenomenon. Researchers are then encouraged to explore the meaning at a number of levels for example the description of the phenomenon and specific language used to describe the phenomenon (ibid). Reflecting the fundamentals of IPA, data analysis took an idiographic approach (Smith and Shineborne, 2012:73) which is one that seeks to focus on the individual accounts (in this thesis) of why HTs had chosen to be involved in a school-led model of ITT. Halling (2008, cited in Finlay, 2012:27) posits that idiographic research can be wide ranging in that 'it may well identify general structures of experience.' Moreover, in idiographic research, the researcher generally moves through three levels of analysis moving from the particular experience (of the phenomenon) to the themes common to that phenomenon and finally to the relational aspects of being human that

create those feelings about and views of the phenomenon. These three distinct levels of analysis are intended to bring me, as the researcher, closer to 'accurately' recounting (in this thesis) why HTs could choose to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. Applying this to my own research I anticipated that the first level of analysis would be the individual HT's account of why they choose to be involved in a school-led route into ITT, the second would be eliciting the individual perceptions of the phenomenon of school-led ITT and in the final stage the researcher considers the relational aspects of these choices and perceptions of the phenomenon. In echoes of reference to myself as a 'naive researcher' this approach to analysing the raw data seemed both logical and straightforward, an uncomplicated, linear process which echoed the views of Mellor (2001:4 see section 5.2); interview the respondents, make notes during the interview, transcribe the recording, analyse the data. Yet as my understanding of phenomenology grew in relation to my own research, I felt that this approach emphasised myself as the researcher interpreting the data collected: the HT's voice was 'heard' only in level 1. The substantial analysis would then occur at level 2 and 3 when I had transcribed all the data and immersed myself in these individual accounts to draw out the unique and relational perceptions of school-led ITT (see figure 1below).

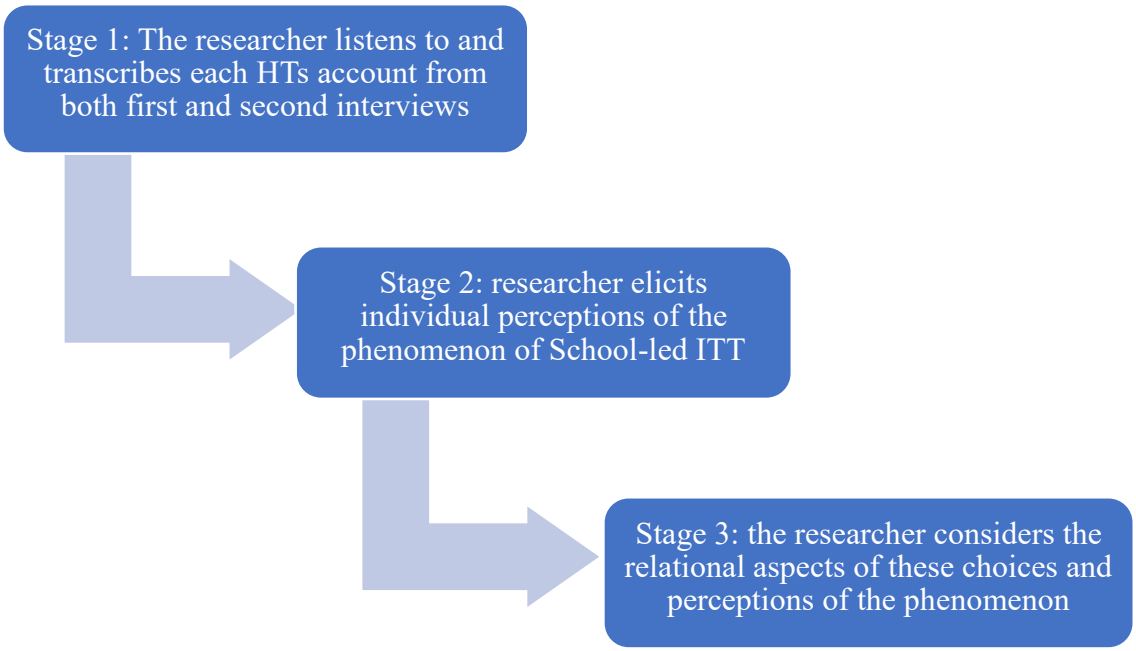

Figure 1: Linear approach to the 3 levels of analysis

However, I felt this to be at odds with my research aims given that a key objective of this analysis was to give a voice to the HTs and explore their perceptions as opposed to my interpretations of taking the lead in ITE. I reviewed the work of Halling (2008, cited in Finlay 2012:27) who provides an extension to IPA which appeared to be more in line with my emergent approach to interpretative phenomenological analysis. Here he urges the researcher to move between the distinct phases of the research, experience (of the phenomenon) and abstraction (the relational aspects of the phenomenon). Consequently, a more cyclical approach mirroring Halling's articulation of the 3 levels of analysis evolved over the period of the study which resulted in me naturally moving between the experience of interviewing and

abstraction of the data (see 5.9 and 5.12). This set the scene for what became two distinct phases in my data analysis (see figure 2 below).

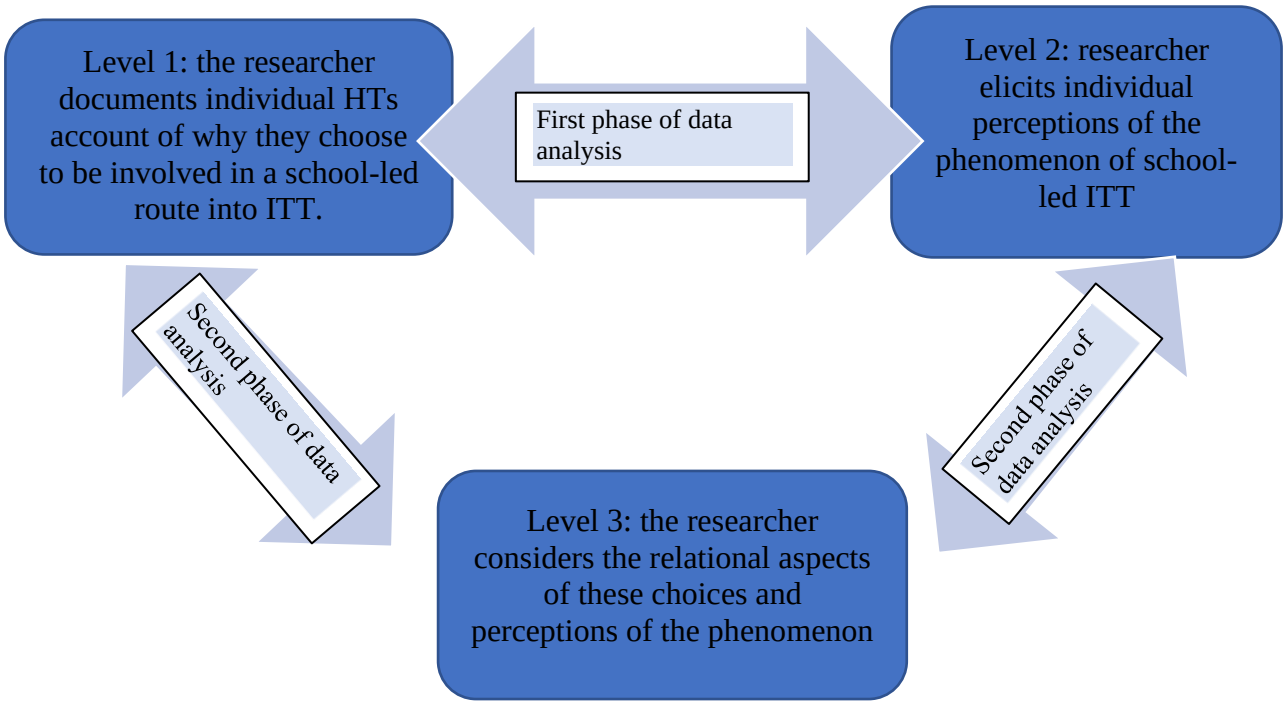

Figure 2: Cyclical approach to 3 levels of analysis

5.9 First phase of data analysis: Their unique experiences

Given that my research was to be completed at two points over this first year of taking the lead in a school-led model of ITT, I felt that the transcription process would need to be completed at each point or the process of transcription would be too unwieldy. Consequently, I began to transcribe each of the interviews as soon as possible after the event so that the experience was fresh in my mind. I felt that transcription would be a laborious process, but I acknowledged the importance of getting this first-hand

experience of the data I had collected. In line with the ethical considerations outlined in section 4.16, the recordings had all been coded so that anonymity was preserved. I listened to each recording a number of times, stopping and restarting the recordings at intervals so that I could differentiate between the words used to describe the experience and the way the experience was described. As I transcribed each interview, I began to incorporate the field notes I had made during the interviews so that I had a complete record of each interview. This precise listening to each tape after each interview gave me the opportunity to revisit moments where participants were 'wrestling in real time with something important that is happening to them' (Smith and Shineborne, 2012:73), and the verbatim transcription was important to make sure I had the actual words spoken by the participants. Once the transcription was complete, I reviewed each transcript and incorporated the relevant field notes relating to each participant which were made during the interview. On each transcript I added any intonations and additional emotional responses, for example quizzical looks, and I acknowledged where there were pauses for thinking time or clarification. While this confirmed my expectations that this would be a time-consuming process, transcribing became an illuminating experience. Immersing myself in detailed readings of the data at various points in the research process not only enabled me to condense the wealth of data I had collected but allowed the unique accounts and relational aspects of the phenomenon of school-led ITT to emerge. Almost intuitively I began to embark on the data analysis: data collection and analysis at this point became a synchronous process. My analysis of each HT's transcript from the first phase of interviews identified the personal and sometimes unique insights which had emerged, and I began to position the summary of my findings from the data collected within the research questions to 'ensure that these links (were) both transparent and defendable' (Thomas, 2006:237)

given the aims of this research. The substance of a 'double hermeneutic' was certainly evident in my analysis as I attempted to interpret the HTs' perceptions of their experiences of the phenomenon of SD. In each case I was careful to adopt the phenomenological attitude (see section 5.7), to bracket my prior knowledge and understanding of SD while retaining an open attitude which was sensitive to hearing the experiences of the HTs. While I was aware of and made note of where there was evidence of general themes which were emerging, my primary focus was in immersing myself in the individual accounts and discovering where these individual accounts were both similar and distinctive. From the similar I began to extract some idea of shared perceptions of the phenomenon, whereas from the distinctive I maintained my focus on those unique experiences which led to the decision to take the lead in ITT. Given the challenges I encountered in reviewing Giorgi (2006) psychological method and the interpretative approach of Smith and Osborne (2008), it could be construed from this that I was still wavering between a Husserlian descriptive approach and a hermeneutic interpretive approach. As Finlay (2012:25) remarks 'researchers who claim to have bracketed and therefore transcended their assumptions while using a hermeneutic approach would seem to be both naïve and confused.' On the contrary, I remained committed to my focus of eliciting perceptions of the phenomenon and extracting both shared and unique experiences. At this point I began to use the technique of memoing (see section 5.11), reflections which were 'a snap-shot of thought processes at a given stage of the research' (Birks et al., 2008:71) and which helped me make sense of the ideas and insights about the phenomenon and why I made particular decisions about the research design both in this phase and the next. As the next phase of data collection was not until the end of the academic year, approximately six months later I felt that these contemporaneous reflections were

important to prevent me losing these ideas and insights once all the data had been collected and the process of data analysis began in earnest. Moreover, the impact of adopting this technique contributed to clarifying the focus of the second phase of interviews and I decided to return the transcript to the HTs so that they had the opportunity to review and revise their initial perceptions adding any additional experiences in relation to this phenomenon if necessary.

5.10 Clarifying the phenomenon.

As a result of this initial analysis and following on from observations by Giorgi and Giorgi (2008), I took the decision to mediate participants' experiences. Prior to the second interview each participant was invited to review their transcript, and this formed the basis of this interview. In returning the transcripts to each HT I believed that the second interview would give us the opportunity to clarify and explore features of this experience over this first year. Additionally, I believed this would enable me to confirm validity of findings by verifying my interpretations of HTs' experiences and perceptions in the first phase of data analysis with the participants themselves These experiences in the intervening period between the first and second interview could confirm or potentially change their initial perceptions about the preparation of future teachers and the future of partnerships between schools and HEIs and I believed that the data collected from interview 2 was crucial in contributing to RQ2 and RQ3 (see chapter 1.8). In my readings of phenomenological texts, Giorgi and Giorgi (2008:7) comment data collection (and analysis) in phenomenological research is time consuming and pragmatically in the spirit of phenomenological research methods returning to the participants may result in lengthy revisions to the existing data.

Additionally, validating findings in this way seemed to be a contentious move amongst some prominent phenomenological researchers (Giorgi and Giorgi, 2008; Smith, 2011) who question the validity of this practice arguing that the participant is not best placed to confirm his/her own perceptions. 'Participants are surely privileged when it comes to what they experienced, but not necessarily concerning the meaning of their experience' (Giorgi and Giorgi, 2008:5): it is down to the researcher to make sense of this data. Yet in having embraced the concept of an active, dynamic process to data collection I believed that in returning the transcripts from the first interviews to the HTs for clarification and verification, the data collected in the second interview would be richer. As Mears (2009:104) posits, in a phenomenological study the opportunity for a second interview allows participants to clarify the phenomenon by reflecting on their experiences and perceptions and to reconstruct this experience with greater detail based on their reflections. In giving HTs the opportunity to review and expand on their initial perceptions I could co-construct HTs' unique experiences of the phenomenon and add any additional experiences if necessary. The second interview was 'non-directive and flexible' (Doody and Noonan, 2013:3), an unstructured approach where these insights were then explored as a dialogue between me and the participant. Consequently, the second phase of interviews was an interactive exchange between me and the participants, a dialogic process in which I sought clarification of the phenomenon based on the perceptions and experiences elicited in the first phase of data collection to ensure accuracy of interpretation and meaning (Mills, 2001; Nevin and Cardelle-Elawar, 2003). Here the HTs recounted their experiences and I listened to and interpreted them, I was able to engage in a reflexive and dialogic process: to put aside my own experiences of the phenomenon and co-construct the research experience through reflexivity as mutual collaboration (see section 5.6). In this thesis

the data collected in the second interviews was the final scene in the interpersonal drama of each of the 12 participants as HTs drew together their comprehensive and authentic accounts (Miller and Glassner, 2016, cited in Humberstone and Prince, 2019:138) and added to the rich data collected over the period of this research

5.11 The rationale for using memoing

In section 5.9, I stated that in this research memoing was used as a technique which served as a reflective tool and contributed to data collection and analysis: a technique which I utilised at each phase of the research process. In broadening my understanding of memoing, a review of the literature revealed a variety of terms and practices some of which seemed to contradict my own understanding of utilising this technique. For example, Groenewald (2004:48) states that memoing is the 'researcher's field notes recording what the researcher hears, sees, experiences and thinks.' This seems to be a less comprehensive practice of memoing than that used in my own research which suggests that the use of the terms memoing and field notes can be used interchangeably. On the other hand, Jabber (2016) comments that the process of memoing takes place in the interview and not beyond. Consequently, it is important that I make the distinction between the use of terms and clarify the practice of memoing in my research. In this thesis my understanding of memoing was informed by Charmaz (2008:72), a key proponent of grounded theory, who posits that 'memoing is a logical activity for the researcher and one whose value is as a method of recording key aspects of the research journey.' Utilising memoing as a technique enabled me to 'immerse [the researcher] in the data, explore the meanings that this data holds, maintain continuity and sustain momentum in the conduct of research'

(Charmaz, 2008: 72). Birks, Chapman and Francis (2008:69) state that although memoing is a strategy most commonly associated with grounded theory 'all qualitative approaches can be enhanced by the use of memos.' As a technique it is not confined to the analytical stage of the research but can be a reflexive and motivational tool which helps the researcher to make sense of both the research process and the data at the point of collection and analysis (Birks et al., 2008; Miles and Huberman, 1994). In line with this, the technique of memoing became a complete record of my research experience, utilised throughout to clarify the research design and enrich data analysis. In adopting this technique, I was able to 'develop [my] ideas in narrative form and fullness early in the research process' (Charmaz, 2008:82). In the initial stages of my research, memoing was a relatively unsophisticated 'free flow' of ideas in two distinct areas. Firstly, my observations of participants during interviews which I described as field notes and secondly my reflections post interview on the research process itself. For example, notes made during the pilot study informed my research design and resulted in refining and revising the four key questions (see section 4.2). While this free flow of ideas continued throughout the research process, memoing became more systematic due to the volume of memoing that was being undertaken as I realised the significance of this technique complementing both my data collection and my journey as a researcher. I sectioned my notebook so that I could organise and access this information more readily. In one section I had field notes which were recorded 'in situ' (Mulhall, 2003:311): these notes included the naturally occurring gestures and intonations of the participants which were anonymised in line with ethical considerations (see section 4.16). During my post interview reflections as I reviewed these notes and listened to the recordings, I began to make some basic theoretical connections between the empirical data and the literature I was reading at

the time (see chapter 2 and 3). These reflections were noted in a second section and formed the beginnings of my data analysis, identifying emerging themes and noting the unique experiences of the HTs alongside these themes. Finally, at key points during and post data collection stage, I memoed, and my 'ramblings' in this third section outlined my own journey as a researcher and charted the progression of the research process. This timeline of research decisions in section three of my notebook was an important resource when deconstructing the research process for the writing of this thesis. Memos included moments of insight in my developing understanding of the tenets of phenomenology, for example the phenomenological attitude, the dual process of bracketing and reflexivity and their application to my research. The dualist nature of researcher positionality in my research became apparent (see section 4.10) and my authenticity as a phenomenological researcher became transparent (see section 4.9). Memoing in this way developed not only my understanding of the research process but contributed to experiencing reflexivity as a transformative activity as opposed to a reductionist technique (see section 5.5). As Birks et al., 2008:69) note, memoing can 'provide a mechanism for the articulation of assumptions and subjective perspectives about the area of research.' Consequently, in using memoing in my research I had a timeline of research decisions and the beginnings of data analysis which informed and supported the writing of my thesis.

5.12 Phase Two of data analysis: the relational aspects of the phenomenon

With interview one and two now transcribed I had a complete data set to work with. In three cases, due to technological difficulties, the recordings from this second phase of

data collection were not complete, however despite this, this iterative process of merging field note and memos gave me a comprehensive and rich data set for each HT from which to move into phase two of my data analysis. This was a challenging process, and I was mindful that one focus of my research was to give primary school HTs a voice to explore why schools would want to move away from the traditional model of ITE (see chapter 1.7). It was important that my analysis continued to mirror this and conformed with my choice of methodological approach. Finlay (2012:20) posits that 'phenomenologists contest what should be the focus of their research.' Those researchers following a descriptive approach will focus on the eidetic, that is the detailed descriptions of the participants used to elicit the general features of a phenomenon. Other phenomenologists following an intuitive approach seek to interpret idiographic, individual meaning which may or may not result in commonalities. In this thesis the emphasis was on exploring individual meanings through the first-person accounts of the 12 HTs and eliciting their experiences of the phenomenon, school-led ITT.

Phenomenological analysis is a lengthy process and one that necessitates commitment to elicit relationships of meaning, those categories or themes that emerge from the data (Thomas, 2006; Finlay, 2013). My approach to this was informed by Thomas (2006 :241) and I began the extensive but significant process of reading and rereading the data set from each of the 12 HTs so that I became familiar with the content of this raw data. Once again, in each case I was careful to adopt the phenomenological attitude (see section 5.7), to bracket my prior knowledge and understanding of SD while retaining an open attitude which was sensitive to hearing the experiences of the HTs. While I was aware of and made note of where there was evidence of general themes

which were emerging, my primary focus was in immersing myself in the individual accounts and noting where these individual accounts were both similar and distinctive (see section 4.12). From the similar I began to extract some idea of shared perceptions of the phenomenon, whereas from the distinctive I maintained my focus on those unique experiences which led to the decision to take the lead in ITT. Given the challenges I encountered in reviewing Giorgi's psychological method and Smith and Osborn's IPA (2008), it could be construed from this that I was still wavering between a Husserlian descriptive approach and a hermeneutic interpretive approach. As Finlay (2012:25) remarks 'researchers who claim to have bracketed and therefore transcended their assumptions while using a hermeneutic approach would seem to be both naïve and confused.' On the contrary, I remained committed to my focus of eliciting perceptions of the phenomenon and extracting both shared and unique. By immersing myself in the words of the HTs and those individual meanings, I was able to elicit experiences of this first year of taking the lead in a school-led model of ITT. Themes emerged from the data which were common to the phenomenon of SD, for example 'working in partnership with HEIs and recruitment to teaching' (Table 1). In formulating these, care was taken to avoid imposing my own ideas by using the language from actual phrases or meanings that the HTs used as the labels for these themes (Thomas, 2006 :241).

As I forged ahead with the analysis of the data, I was mindful to review my research aims after reading each data set to check that these themes were those which reflected and were most relevant to my thesis. Consequently, these themes became more refined, and I re-evaluated the analysis at the end of this process to organise data into 6 main themes which exemplified the relational aspects of the phenomenon. These main

themes which considered links between the phenomenon identified emerged as over-arching categories directly from but identified after the sub themes which embodied the unique experiences of the participants (see table one below). In a further step to ensure that the voice of the HTs was heard, the headings used for each of the main and subthemes were taken directly from the words used by HTs and recorded in the tran-scripts.

Main themes	**Subordinate themes**	**Link with RQ**	**Links with Lit review**
1. Sustainability of this school-led route into ITT	*1. Capacity* *2. Competition* *3. Political landscape* *4. Role of the school (in ITT)* *5. Conflict of core business*	RQ3 RQ3 RQ1&3 RQ1&3 RQ2&3	2.1 &2.4 2.4 2.1 2.2 2.2
2. Preparation of good teachers	*1. Dissatisfaction with quality of student teachers/ NQTs* *2. Ownership of the recruitment and training process* *3. Understanding of the role of the teacher* 4. *Partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools*	RQ1 RQ1&2 RQ1 RQ1&3	2.2/2.4 2.1/2.4 2.3 2.4
3. Composition of the SDA	*1. Collaboration with partner schools* *2. Support for students in school*	RQ1 RQ2&3	2.2 2.3.

4. Whole School development of existing teachers	1. *Personal growth in pedagogy and subject knowledge* 2. *Working with identified stakeholders*	RQ1&3 RQ1&3	2.3 2.4
5. The curriculum for ITT	1. *Importance of pedagogy* 2. *Personalisation of the student experience* 3. *Role of HEI* 4. *Ownership of the curriculum for ITT*	RQ2 RQ2 RQ2&3 RQ2	2.2, 2.3 2.2/2.4 2.2
6. Immersion in the life of the school	1. *Demonstrating the Teachers' Standards for QTS* 2. *Instilling professional expectations* 3. *NQT resilience*	RQ2 RQ2 RQ2	2.1 2.3 2.3

Table 1: Themes and subthemes of data analysis

5.13 The quality of the research

Savin-Baden and Major (2013) and Cohen, Manion and Morris (2017) suggest that the quality of research can be assessed by a range of criteria which have traditionally been identified in the research community as validity and reliability. Ritchie et al. (2013:256) posit that the validity of the research refers to 'the correctness or precision of a research reading.' This relates to the accuracy of the findings, the extent to which the data support the findings and the extent to which the findings can be applicable to similar contexts. In a qualitative study such as this, Baden et al. (2013:470) suggest that the positivist terms of validity and reliability are unhelpful and propose that the quality of the research is viewed by the researcher in relation to their philosophical

stance (see chapter 4.2). Furthermore, they propose that it is the **credibility** (emphasis my own) of the research that is key to ensuring this quality (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:470). Here credibility is situated in findings which are trustworthy and believable. These findings reflect participants' and researcher's real-life experiences which mirror the philosophical stance I am taking for this research (see chapter 4.). Throughout my research my intention has been to present an honest and trustworthy account by means of giving the participants a voice and enabling them to share their perceptions freely. I have endeavoured to examine and present the data in an open and transparent way to ensure rigour and authenticity. Furthermore, researcher integrity (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:275) and authenticity have been achieved by ensuring that my interpretation of the voices of the HTs, which was a key aim of my research, was rooted in the data and reflected in my discussion.

5.14 summary

In this chapter I have critiqued how my chosen methodology of phenomenology informed the research design for this thesis. The significance of the pilot study in both forming a set of key questions and raising issues of researcher positionality has been explored and amendments to the research design outlined as a result of this. Throughout the chapter the development of my understanding of phenomenology has been chronicled and the impact of this as an approach has been critiqued in both the data collection and analysis of data. In adopting the phenomenological attitude throughout the interview process and in my analysis, I have established the importance of 'hearing' the voices of the participants as opposed to merely listening. The rhetoric of the participant's voices being heard has therefore been sustained in the

data collection and the technique of data analysis. The complexities and challenges of both the research and the analysis have been presented culminating in the identification of 6 themes and sub themes which emerged directly from the 'voices' of the 12 HTs who participated in this study. It is these themes and sub themes which will form the basis of my next chapter.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Analysis of Findings

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will present the findings and analysis of my research and discuss these in relation to the relevant literature. This introductory section to chapter 5 revisits my three research questions and summarises the key themes of the literature presented along with a brief outline of the selected methodology and the research design. In doing this my intention is to re-establish the context and the focus of the research.

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the experiences of a selected group of primary HTs across two SDAs as they embark upon their first experience of training a cohort of PG student teachers. The study is pertinent because it gives a voice to schools as to why they might seek to move away from the traditional model of ITE by exploring their perceptions of ITE and their role in the preparation of future teachers. The data was collected over the course of their first year of taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT at a point when partnership between schools and HEIs is changing and evolving in England as a result of government legislation. It is important to remember that the purpose of this study is not to provide definitive reasons why HTs would choose to take the lead in ITT but to explore the realities of SD as a route for the preparation of future teachers by focusing on the perceptions of the HTs in this study. To facilitate this the thesis has three research questions:

1. For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model?
2. How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school-led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?
3. What might be the implications for future partnerships between schools and HEIs as a result of the decision to take the lead in the SD model of ITT?

My interest in researching this was stimulated by events in my own workplace as a consequence of the publication of 'The Importance of Teaching' (DfE, 2010) At that time, I observed that partnerships between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers appeared to be in a state of flux particularly in the PGCE route of ITE as a result of the greater emphasis on school-led routes into teaching embedded in the White Paper (DfE, 2010). In Chapter one I set out that my interest in the preparation of future teachers is rooted in the ongoing discussion between government, HEIs and schools in England, about who should be taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers (universities or schools) and where the balance of this preparation should be located (school or university). I determined that there had been a significant reform of ITE which was positioned against a backdrop of change in education which included the expansion of partnership agreements between HEIs and schools. I established that more recently, as a result of the White Paper (DfE, 2010), a new model of ITT had been introduced and I outlined how this new model of SD gave the opportunity for schools to take the lead in ITT. This linked directly to the aims of this study, establishing it as both a principal route into ITT and a catalyst for the changing role of HEIs, both of which are central to my research.

The foundations of this study were set out in the literature review. Chapter 2 Theme 1 set the context for this decision to take the lead and explored the political background underpinning the reform of ITE. It set out a chronology of changes in government policy from 1992 – present day which created the permitting circumstances for school to take the lead in ITT. Alternatively, theme 2 of this chapter analysed the impact of government policy on HEIs and schools and the literature presented set out that, as alternative models of ITE were developed, there was a discernible shift in the balance of power between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, the literature presented suggested that this shift had its roots in a perceived dominance of HEIs by the government in the preparation of future teachers. While chapter 3, theme 1 offered a theoretical analysis of how the HTs' personal histories could be the basis for making the decision to take the lead, theme 2 of this chapter considered the intricacies of power relations between each of the three stakeholders in ITE, the government, HEIs and the schools, and the possible impact of these .

My research is situated in the non-positivist qualitative paradigm of phenomenology. In chapter 4 of this thesis I set out the philosophy of Husserl's descriptive and Heidegger's interpretive phenomenology and I outlined the impact and complexities of these central tenets for me in my research journey. In reviewing the research design in relation to the aims of the research, the intent of giving the participants a voice is evident throughout this chapter and issues of researcher positionality and ethical considerations are critiqued. Furthermore, the challenges of phenomenology as a method of research design are considered and I explored the use of data collection (and analysis) techniques using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). This

approach enabled me to move between the experience (of the phenomenon of SD) and abstraction (the relational aspects of the phenomenon).

My reflections on the choice of phenomenology as a research approach formed the basis of chapter 5. This chapter outlined how my chosen methodology of phenomenology informed and underpinned the research design. I ascertained that preparatory work prior to the first round of interviews was essential and necessitated a pilot study and further attention to ethical considerations. The practicalities of collecting and analysing large amounts of data from both interviews and associated field notes has been explored: the technique of memoing was introduced as a means of supporting and enriching the data at key points in the research process. Finally, the process of analysing the data sets (interviews, field notes and memoing) using an inductive approach while staying true to phenomenological principles was outlined. As a result of the approach to analysis outlined in chapter 5, I identified six main themes which exemplified the relational aspects of the phenomenon (see chapter 5, Table 1) and each theme was then referenced against each research question. As has already been described in chapter 4 and established by way of chapter 5, a phenomenological approach to my research is appropriate because it is the study of a phenomenon (in this thesis the phenomenon of school-led ITT), the nature of that phenomenon, and the meaning of it to the individuals who are experiencing it.
this. This suited the research questions because my interest was in the first-hand accounts of the HTs in their first year of delivering a school-led programme of ITT.

6.2 Presentation of the data

To explore and answer the 3 research questions, I will present the data in three sections with each section pertaining to the corresponding research question: section 6.4 corresponds to RQ1, 6.5 corresponds to RQ2 and finally 6.6 corresponds to RQ3. In each section the opening paragraph will identify the main themes and the interview questions from which the participant response is taken. This will be followed by the findings corresponding to the research question set out as a discrete section. Throughout the findings, the main themes which relate to each RQ will be highlighted while each subordinate theme will be italicised (refer Table 1). As I established in section 4.8, this is significant as the themes and subordinate themes embody the perceptions of each HT and their observations of the reality of this experience: these are formed from the HTs' words. The analysis and discussion pertaining to each RQ will follow, and the findings will be discussed in relation to the reviewed literature where relevant. At the end of each RQ there will be concluding comments which reflect on the aim of this research and provide a response to each RQ. It is in my interpretation of the data that I will establish the extent to which the data collected supports and extends the views expressed in the literature reviewed. At the end of this chapter there is a chapter summary which draws together the significant discussion points outlined in each RQ.

The rationale for presenting the data in this manner is for two reasons both of which are rooted in phenomenological principles. The first reason is a pragmatic one in that to answer my 3 research questions, it is important to organise the findings, analysis and discussion in this way to ensure that these distinct themes are those which reflect and are most relevant to my thesis. The second reason is in line with the fundamentals

of IPA outlined in chapter 4 and 5 and the aim of my research in that it is important to check that the voices of each of the HTs are prominent as their unique experience and perceptions of taking the lead in ITT are recounted and analysed (see section 4.8). This is complex as analysis of the data from interview 1 and 2 reveals the existence of multiple perspectives of the phenomenon of school- led ITT. This means that the interpretation of the data can be located across more than one research question. As a result, these multiple perspectives could be 'lost' in the discussion leading to a superficial analysis of the data in relation to the literature reviewed as opposed to the acknowledgement of alternative perceptions.

6.3 Coding references used to identify the HTs

Coding references were used to distinguish between each of the HTs and each of the two interviews. For ease of reference HTs were assigned with an identifying marker numbered 1-12 during the transcription of interviews (see section 5.4). This preserved confidentiality and anonymity in line with ethical considerations. As there were two interview points for each of the 12 HTs, one at the beginning and one at the end of the first year of taking the lead in ITT (see section 5.10), the data from each interview is differentiated by the identifying marker 1-12 and the interview number, for example HT 3 interview 2, is set out as HT3.2, HT 12 interview 1 is set out as HT12.1 and so forth. It is important to note that due to technical difficulties the data for HTs 3.2, 5.2 and 6.2 is taken from field notes (see section 4.16 and 5.11).

6.4 Research Question 1: For what reasons have some HTs chosen to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model?

The data for RQ1 was mainly drawn from HTs' responses to key questions 1 and 3 in interview 1 with some further reflections from interview 2. These responses were varied, and the data presented suggested that there were a number of reasons for HTs involving their school in school-led ITT. However, the primary reasons identified originate in the main themes 1 (Sustainability of this route into ITT), 2 (Preparation of good teachers), 3 (Composition of the SDA) and 4 (Whole School development of existing teachers) and reflect the subordinate themes identified in italics throughout the findings.

6.4.1 Findings

The initial responses from HTs were primarily related to the *Dissatisfaction with the quality of NQTs* (theme 2.1) appointed by themselves or other HTs at the end of the NQTs' programme of ITT (HTs10.1; 11.1; 12.1). As HT7.1 outlined, the staff in school had struggled with a recent appointment of an NQT in relation to the "key things that schools wanted to see" for example professional relationships with colleagues and standards of behaviour including appropriate dress and punctuality. "Sometimes they're not [laughs] they're not showing the characteristics that I would expect of a new teacher" (HT7.1). HT 11.1 expanded on this observing that:

> "I actually felt that particularly one of our NQTs, wasn't as well prepared as perhaps they…should have been erm…and actually got quite a shock with the whole management of class, planning one thing and another."

The comments of HTs were not solely about the quality of NQTs, and HTs commented on the quality of student teachers which they had on placement in recent years (HTs 3.1; 4.1; 5.1; 9.1). HT 3.1 described recent experiences of supporting student teachers and observed "we were finding that sometimes we were getting students who were not actually up to the mark that we were expecting them to be" and felt that this was a reflection on the quality of training which over recent years had "slipped." HT3.1 continued, "in the last I think 3 or 4 years…it's been students who've come in….and the (planning) sheet was basically empty." Similarly, HTs 10.1 and 11.1 commented on the lack of preparation which they had observed in areas of assessment and planning, areas that they felt impacted on pupil learning and should therefore be a priority in the curriculum provided by HEIs. HT 6.1 offered a summary which embodied these perceptions suggesting that:

> "I think there are a number [of reasons]. One is a certain level of dissatisfaction with the quality of the traditional system in terms of, really in terms of output and outcome."

The extent of this dissatisfaction with output (the quality of student teachers that HTs had experience of in recent years) and outcome (the quality of these student teachers

as NQTs) originated primarily from a perception that there was an inequality in the *Partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools* (theme 2.4) and this was particularly evident in the area of recruitment to the PGCE programme. In the main, HTs felt that the key to high-quality NQTs began with the recruitment process and doubts were expressed about the rigour of recruiting high-quality student teachers by HEIs particularly during the interview process. HTs1.1, 3.1, 7.1, 8.1 and 12.1 perceived that there was a lack of clarity about the criteria for recruitment to a programme of ITT. HT1.1 cited an example of an "excellent HLTA" (Higher Level Teaching Assistant) who went for an interview at a local HEI and "didn't actually get on course and to this day I still don't know why." Additionally, HT3.1 had participated in joint interviewing of potential QTS students with a partner HEI and remarked that some of the interview candidates "didn't get on but I was a bit concerned about who were getting on and I thought I wouldn't have had them." HTs 3, 7, 8 and 12 expanded on this apparent lack of clarity and shaped their observations in the wider context of the *Political landscape* (theme 1.3) observing that outcomes were linked with the number of student teachers recruited and the HEI's capacity to secure quality placements. HTs 3.2 and 12.1 appeared to be frustrated with the increased demand for school places by partner HEIs. HT3.2 (field notes) observed a lack of organisation in student placements and highlighted an occasion where two first year students had arrived at the school "unannounced" for a paired placement. HT 12.1 expanded on this and expressed her frustration that there had been a number of recent requests to have additional students which they had tried to accommodate "as I wanted to help the (university) out," but that this was difficult because of their school situation. HT 7.1 noted "it's not good when students embark on a course and then the university almost is struggling with finding schools to take the placement." Building

on these experiences HT 10.1 shared her uneasiness, “I’m getting so many phone calls at the moment off universities asking us to place students and don’t know why the reason for that is.” This uneasiness gave rise to questions about the quality of placements that any one provider could source and the rationale of recruiting students to a programme of ITT without a clear strategy for placement which included assessing the capacity of partnership schools to accommodate them. HT8.1 summarised these concerns:

> “… it just worries me that HEI people are taking so many and they can’t find placements for them. To me they need to be thinking how many placements can we give and then we’re going to take X amounts of students because you’ve got students who aren’t getting the school rich experience.”

HT7.1 supported this, “it concerns me about getting the numbers right for the future and what the nation needs as far as trained teachers.” As a result of these concerns, *Ownership of the recruitment and training process* (theme 2.2) was cited as a primary reason for being involved in the SD. The opportunity to take control of the recruitment process meant that HTs could “get …really high-quality people” (HT8.1) and “the ones we thought were going to have a good chance of it” (HT3.1) and to contribute positively to the profession. HT5.1 continued:

> “…we don’t want 11 teachers at the end of it that just think they are right for [name of the school] we want someone to think that this isn’t the right school

> for me to work in. The important thing for us is to develop teachers who know their own mind who know their personal pedagogy of what teaching is for them so that they can find a school that they can flourish in."

Interviewing in the two SDA as part of the recruitment process was considered to be "pretty rigorous and there was no messing" (HT3.1). In recounting the organisation of their interviews for SD HT2.1 explained "the whole interview itself I think was extremely demanding and I think reflects the type of students that we want in this cluster" with places offered "to candidates who are going to fit with us…and who are going to meet the grade" (HT9.1). As HT 10.1 commented "because we could interview the students that we were going to have…prior to them starting so [I] would know the quality of the students that were coming through our door." This led to a renewed confidence in the quality of the output and the outcome. "We know [they'll be good teachers] because they've been grilled and they've been interviewed, we know they will be we've seen them teach" (HT8.1).

HTs commented about the inequality of *Partnership arrangements between HEIs and school* (theme 2.4) particularly in the organisation of placements for students as part of their programme of ITT. This was highlighted in a number of responses as an experience which had contributed to the decision of the participating HTs to become involved in school-led ITT (HTs 2.1; 5.1; 7.1; 9.1; 12.1). HT8.1 cited the late notification of student placement from their partnership HEI and similarly HT10.1 identified poor supporting documentation which led to a lack of clarity about the objectives and requirements of the placements that students were undertaking at any

given time in their programme of study. HT3.1 explained in detail how "we sometimes, we had students here who'd failed and sometimes we'd taken extra" in a bid to give students alternative experiences and a chance to meet the Teaching Standards in a different setting. This led to a lack of trust in the standards and procedures of the partner HEI when the school felt that the student "hadn't met the standards and [we] tried to fail her and weren't allowed to" (HT3.1). This lack of transparency contributed to HTs emphasising their commitment to the preparation of future teachers and seeking alternative ways to support the preparation of good teachers (theme 2) by taking the lead by way of the SD model of ITT (HTs1.1; 4.1; 5.1; 9.1; 10.1;11.1; 12.1). However rather than lessen the HTs' enthusiasm for supporting students this seemed to be a motivating factor in choosing to take the lead. As HT 11.1 stated that:

> "I actually felt that particularly one of our NQTs wasn't as well prepared as perhaps they should have been…and you know if I'm saying they should be better prepared then we should be willing to support that preparation."

This desire to support the preparation of good teachers through taking the lead in ITT was a recurring theme throughout interview 1 and revisited in interview 2. While there was some variation about how this preparation would be achieved, all HTs perceived that taking the students through from recruitment to the end of the training process in this one year PGCE programme would ensure high-quality student output. In particular HTs 1.1, 3.1 and 10.1 highlighted the impact of situating the students in the

SDA over the full cycle of the academic year on both output and outcome. In interview 1, HTs contextualised the benefits for students in experiencing at "first hand, the reality of the day to day working of a school" (HT11.1). HTs 1.1 and 12.1 represented the views of other HTs in the study:

> "I think they get a proper understanding of what schools are like what's their role...I think that they become part of the fabric of the school and I think that's how you really find out how schools work and what they have to do" (HT1.1).

HT 12.1 expanded on the significance of this highlighting that it was important for students to understand the many roles that a teacher had in school:

> "…it's all those different roles that actually people wouldn't believe possible... I've had to learn so many other things just to be in my role and I think possibly being in a school [to see] all those little things that are part of your role."

HT 6.1 developed this further in explaining that time spent in school gave students:

> "the opportunity to get a really, really deep understanding about how schools function and what the role of the teacher is. Not just in terms of kind of

> specific outcomes of a course but trying to make them aware of what life is like for teachers"

This was corroborated at the end of the programme by HT6.2 (field notes) who commented that the students had "perhaps a much more rounded experience" about the reality of being in a school and therefore what it is like to be a teacher. Additionally, HTs 10.1 and 3.1 believed that situating the student in the SDA over the full cycle of the academic year would test out students "commitment to teaching" (HT 3.1) towards employment as an NQT. As HT 10.1 explained:

> "…we have had them [on final block placements] where we think they shouldn't be in this profession. They're not going to be a good teacher… and they've failed because they're not in the right profession."

HT 3.1 supported and illustrated this in recounting her experience of a past student who "appeared oblivious" to the importance of attending a planning meeting to work on progression of learning:

> "I think because it's actually it's almost like they're having to get their heads around the fact that this is not a game. This is not something where you can just go home and throw together a bit of a plan."

Developing student teachers' *Understanding of the role of the teacher* (theme 2.3) over the full cycle of the academic year of a school was also articulated as a positive related to pupil outcomes. A number of HTs emphasised the significance of understanding the role of the teacher in relation to the recruitment of NQTs stating that this "would give us (erm) a recruitment avenue of staff who are already aware of what we expect" (HT4.1). HT10.1 expanded on this commenting that "we're going to have vacancies and I've had a few bad experiences in the past with NQTs and I want to basically try before I buy." The appeal of appointing NQTs from the pool of student teachers recruited to a SDA was echoed by HT5.1 who explained that NQT recruitment began at the interviewing stage for the programme. "At every interview we had a HT from a different school (in the SDA) and they're thinking about whether they would fit into their school." Appointing a student who had been based in a host school as an NQT in the same school was described as "the holy grail" (HT 4.2) and recognised as being a key factor in maintaining standards of teaching and learning in an outstanding school (HTs 5.2 field notes: 8.2 and 6.2 field notes). This was supported by HT 8.2 who on reviewing their first year of being involved in SD stated that:

> "…these students know the setup of the schools that they've got jobs at. That's massive for starting in September; they've got a real grasp of the school already; they've got a start on relationships within that school and it's not walking over that threshold during the six weeks; they've really got something to get a grip on ready to launch in September."

This was a view corroborated by HT10.1 who commented that after a year in the SDA a student teacher "will know us as well and they know how we work. So, you're kind of up and running before you start really in September."

The positive impact on pupil outcomes of situating student teachers in the SDA was not solely confined to recruitment of an NQT. HT1.1 stated that as the student teacher had been in the school since September this experience meant that by final placement, he had knowledge of the children, staff and routines and consequently "he's going to know what we do, he's going to come straight in, it's not going to be finding out about this, that and the other." This was seen as a positive in terms of the impact on pupil outcomes with this model of ITT (see section 1.3) and was a sentiment which was supported by a number of HTs who also recognised that completing their final placement in the host school impacted both the quality of student teacher and pupil outcomes:

> "That final placement is key because you're teaching an awful lot… so you if go to the school and you're spending a week of that getting to know the children [pause] whereas he will come into his final placement with us, knowing the children…. knowing what level they're at, knowing where they are going" (HT8.1).

At the end of the academic year reflections by HT5.2 (field notes) confirmed this: “On a placement alone, you have kind of limited four/six-week block that you can make an impact. Here [students] had the chance to do it over the whole year.”

While HTs’ reasons for involving their schools in school-led ITT were in the main focussed on the output and outcome of student teachers both past and present, respondents remarked that the opportunity to take the lead in ITT afforded other valuable opportunities. HT7.1 referred to this opportunity as being “hugely beneficial” for all staff, a view echoed by other HTs (HTs 1.1; 9.1; 7.11;12.1) who believed that the “class teacher who [is] directly involved with [the student will be] reflecting on their practice and their organisation and the way that they deliver.” HTs believed that the mentoring of a student teacher would lead to *Personal growth in pedagogy and subject knowledge* (theme 4.1) as staff reflected on their own teaching:

> “…if you’ve got to go out and you’ve got to teach someone about the craft of teaching, it encourages you to reflect on why you’re doing something and whether it is relevant” (HT5.1).

and researched current pedagogy and subject knowledge:

> "[staff] are actually having to think about their own self knowledge about different subjects and their own subject knowledge about how they would deliver things not just to the kids and help the students deliver that" (HT10.1).

Furthermore, with one or more students in their school over the course of the year, HTs 1.1, 2.1, 6.1 and 12.1 identified how this personal reflection impacted on the Whole School development of existing teachers (theme 4). For example, one HT described how the planning of a geography session for the students in the SDA prompted the HT and curriculum lead to consider "why are we teaching these children these things and why they actually need to know about it" (HT 10.1). This reflection made her realise "that over the next 12 months we need to be doing that within school for staff …for each subject when we're working on different elements of the curriculum." As HT5.1 summarised:

> "…if members of staff train other people in something they become better at it themselves it's kind of that old adage that if you teach somebody something you get better at it yourself."

However, for one HT, training other people was not solely the prerogative of staff to student teacher. HT2.1 cited the opportunity her staff had to work on an "area for priority for our school improvement plan" as a result of having a student teacher whose specialist area was MFL (Modern Foreign Languages):

> "The conversation she's had with our subject leader have been really beneficial with really sound subject knowledge and also introducing what has here been a new subject over the last year."

The impact on staff of "having trainee teachers who are full of new ideas" (HT5.1) was also validated by HTs who commented that having a student teacher in school was about bringing "other aspects of the outside world to your staff to keep things fresh and to give a different perspective" (HT4.1).

While taking the lead in ITT was regarded as a source of whole school professional development by all HTs this was generally in relation to updating personal and professional skills of their staff "in house" (HT6.1). Expanding on this expectation, HTs 1.2, 5.1, 12.1, 4.1, 11.2, 7.2 cited that the *Collaboration with partner schools* (theme 3.3) which a PGCE programme would require and which, as a part of the SD remit, was a significant reason for being involved with this model of ITT: "It's about having the opportunity to work alongside (erm,) experienced talented individuals from different schools in different contexts" (HT6.1). As HT 1.1 pointed out, "there's got to be a real level of openness, of sharing strength, sharing areas of development and (erm) and also opportunities" (HT2.1) and this opportunity to collaborate with the wider school community was articulated as a key driver for taking the lead in ITT. HTs 1, 3, 4 and 6 remarked on the importance of collaboration for smaller schools who may not have the diversity of staff and expertise was emphasised. Expanding on this, HT2.1 observed that there were challenges in securing partnership with other schools for internal reasons. "I think historically here it's been a very inward-looking

school and so even gaining partnerships with local schools has been really hard." For this HT the SDA meant "that we've got this family of schools" in which to share ideas and expertise based around a common purpose of preparing future teachers. HT4.1 agreed and added "it's about being proactive and about keeping up to date and about (erm) us knowing what's going on out there, not, not being within our own bubble as a school." HT6.1 endorsed this idea of being "outward looking" and talked of the range of possibilities through involvement with an SDA observing that there were limited openings for his staff in school to collaborate with other schools in the current climate. His aspirations for one of his staff members "who's going to be giving a talk on art, display, creating exciting learning environment" (HT6.1) was not only that she would gain confidence through the experience of delivering to students in the SDA but that this would raise her profile and by default the school's profile through "working in partnership with other local schools" (HT6.1).

The opportunity to *Collaborate with partner schools* (theme 3.1) for the preparation of future teachers was a consistent feature of interview 1. As HT8.1 remarked, the composition of the SDA meant that students were "surrounded by outstanding practitioners, for the schools we have in our Alliance are outstanding or good schools who have got a commitment to students." HT8.1 explained that:

> "The most important thing when we were setting up the Alliance [was] to make sure that the people that we'd got on board wanted the same things that we wanted by that sort of outstanding service with the students."

HT 12.1 concurred. “The people who spoke at the … meeting seemed to share my way of going about things. There was an affinity there that suited our school.” Reiterating the importance of this collaborative approach HT1.1 observed that:

> “I know the people involved… so I know the schools involved, I know the calibre of the schools, I know the calibre of the HTs there.’

For some HTs this collaboration was not solely about forming new collaborative partnerships but about innovating within an existing cluster of schools and being “at the leading edge of new innovations” (HT5.1). The HTs forming one SDA had worked together on a number of successful projects over the years and The White Paper (DfE, 2010) provided a number of possibilities for their next joint venture, that is the preparation of good teachers and recruiting them to their schools. “As a group we’re probably a very well-established group in terms of working together and therefore it was the next step for what we wanted to do” (HT11.1).

Collaborating with partner schools within a SDA for reasons other than the preparation of good teachers was also an attractive option for *Working with identified stakeholders* (theme 4.2) for a range of professional development purposes. HT6.1 provided an additional incentive viewing this as an opportunity to “easily” access training in a particular area of SEND (special educational needs and disability) to meet the “wider needs of our school community” as a consequence of being part of this particular SDA. At this juncture, it is interesting to note that, in the main,

stakeholders were defined solely by HTs as those schools working collaboratively within each of the two SDA. Alternatively, HTs 4 and 7 brought a wider perspective as stakeholders were not only viewed as a partnership between schools within a SDA but a partnership between schools and HEIs. HT4.1, while acknowledging the significance of whole school development of existing teachers as part of the SDA, cited her optimism that working in partnership with a HEI would bring opportunities for staff to see:

> "how universities are delivering teacher training these days and what's being said about it all and how you are [pause] teaching the delivery of literacy or how you teach the delivery of PE. Various things like that."

The positive benefits of working in partnership with HEIs on the SD model of ITT were not solely confined to this respondent. For HT7 the decision to take the lead in ITT was a "natural progression" (HT7.1) coming from a "quite substantial course delivery" (HT 7.1) and a sustained period of partnership with a local HEI. However, despite these benefits for HT7, the decision to take the lead in ITT came from an external source:

> "It was never our intention to go into SD. However, there was a very clear steer given to us by the National College that they expected teaching schools to be involved in SD" (HT7.1.).

6.4.2 Analysis and discussion of the findings of Research Question 1

This section explores the significance and implications of the findings for RQ1 which sit within the themes and subthemes outlined in section 6.4.1. My discussion and analysis will draw on the theoretical frameworks presented in chapter 3 to discuss the significance of power relations and the impact of these on the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders in ITT. This is informed by the writings of Ball (2012) and his interpretation of the later work of the French philosopher Foucault (1982: 789, see section 3.2.6 and 3.2.8). Furthermore, I will introduce the significance of HTs' personal histories in choosing to involve their school in school-led ITT by way of the School Direct model. This will be framed in Bourdieu's 'primary thinking tools' (Bourdieu in Wacquant, 1988:5 cited in Rawolle and Lingard, 2008:739) specifically habitus and the associated concepts of field and cultural capital (see section 3.1.7). As the section considers HTs' perceptions of their reasons for involving their schools in a school- led model of ITT, it is important to reiterate that my methodological approach of phenomenology is concerned with uncovering hidden meanings from the actual experiences of the 12 HTs in this study and my translation and interpretation of these hidden meanings from these accounts is therefore unavoidable (Finlay cited in Friesen, Henriksson and Saevi, 2012:22). The degree of translation and interpretation, however, is fundamental to the validity of this research and I have adopted a reflexive approach to mitigate this (see section 5.6). It is the practice of reflexivity in my research which limits my subjectivity and ensures rigour and validity in the translation and interpretation of these accounts. In this section I focus on the reasons that HTs chose to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT for the preparation of future teachers.

6.4.3 "…the quality of the traditional system" (HT6.1)

The findings raise the issue of what constitutes an effective partnership agreement between schools and HEIs and highlight the tensions and challenges for schools in establishing their role in the preparation of future teachers. The literature presented in section 2.2.5 leads me to propose that while partnership between schools and HEIs for this purpose is essential, it is also contentious, predicated on a desire by successive governments to raise standards in education through the reform of ITE which has resulted in school-led courses gaining ground across England. Furthermore, in section 2.2.6 and section 3.2.8 I established that the introduction of these school-led routes into ITT have been interpreted as a drive to marginalise the role of universities, by key commentators of HEIs, for example Florian and Pantić (2013:4). However, the data suggests that the views of the participant HTs offer an alternative perception.

In analysing the narratives of these HTs, their disappointments and frustrations in "the traditional system" (HT5.1) become apparent. The concerns of HTs about the quality of NQTs/student teachers in areas of behaviour management and professional issues appear to reflect those priorities for the preparation of future teachers outlined in The White Paper (DfE, 2010). These were outlined in section 1.3 of this thesis and refer to an emphasis by the Coalition Government on the teaching of the core subjects and increasing the emphasis on behaviour management. Furthermore, the views expressed by HT 7.1 and HT 11.1 about recruitment to programmes of ITT appear to position HTs as 'best placed' to take on this role in their capacity as future employers. In being given the power to take the lead in ITT (see section 1.6), taking the decision to involve their school in the SD model of ITT could be construed as the participant HTs 'flexing their muscles,' yet the data suggests that this was not the case. Rather it reveals that

this decision was not one that was taken lightly but was underpinned by a series of experiences outlined in the findings which challenged HTs' views of the traditional approach to ITE. Further scrutiny of the data reveals the tensions and questions about the effectiveness of the partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs particularly as a forum for addressing these concerns (HT 3.1 and HT 6.1). The views of HTs from interview one and two lead me to suppose that feelings of frustration underpinned the commitment of HT 11.1 in "supporting the preparation" of training while the disappointment in their role in the partnership was illustrated by HTs 10.1 and HT 3.1, in which their role was perceived as little more than offering placements and supporting students in the school based element of the programme. These tensions and questions about the effectiveness of the partnership between HEIs and schools and furthermore the role of schools in this partnership for the preparation of future teachers appear to support the view of Douglas (2012:4, see section 2.2.4) who suggests that these tensions are situated in the complex nature of HEIs and schools working together. He concludes that it is the interpretation and fulfilment of these differing roles that present the greatest challenge in establishing effective partnerships between HEIs. Consequently, the opportunity to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT could be interpreted as an opportunity to redress the balance and redefine what HTs perceived was their role in the preparation of future teachers: one which has been set out in legislation and directives since circular 9/92 secondary (Circular 9/92, DfE 1992) and circular 9/93 primary (Circular 9/93, DfE, 1993) to the present day (see section 2.2.2).

The experiences of HTs in their joint interviews with colleagues from HEI add weight to this interpretation. The lack of transparency about the criteria for offering a place

embedded in the comments of HT 1.1 and 3.1 resulted in further questions about the rationale of HEIs recruiting students to a programme of ITT. These questions appear to give rise to a feeling that the shared agenda for the preparation of future teachers, outlined by Edwards and Mutton (2007:05) in section 2.2.2, did not automatically lead to a shared vision of who a suitable candidate was. These experiences of partnership recounted by HTs 1.1 and 3.1 echo the experiences of other HTs in this study and would suggest that the actuality of the partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools were conforming to the more administrative HEI led partnerships referred to in section 2.2.4 (Furlong et al., 2000:10). This seems at odds with the continued emphasis on the joint responsibility of HEIs and schools in areas of planning, management and delivery of ITE by successive governments (see section 2.1). Furthermore, the narratives of the participating HTs suggest a lack of clarity about their roles and responsibilities despite the mandated partnership arrangements in the area of training and recruitment cited by Husbands 1996:12 in section 2.2.4. For the participating HTs it would appear that their perceptions of the fulfilment and the interpretation of their role had moved on little since the initial stages of formal partnership agreements and expectations over a decade ago (Furlong et al., 1996 in section 2.2.4). Recent experiences of training and recruitment reinforced the belief that their partner HEIs retained overall responsibility for the administration and validation of programmes of ITE as outlined by Spendlove, Howes and Wake (2010:73) in section 2.2.4, and theirs had been the complementary role of providing school based mentors to support the practice element of the course (Edwards and Mutton, 2007: 507). What is notable in my interpretations of these accounts is a growing disquiet in the functions of the partnership. Further evidence of HTs' experiences of training and recruitment revealed that HTs believed this contributed to

the quality of student teachers and NQTs and, to some extent, underpinned the 'dissatisfaction in output and outcome' in the traditional model of ITE expressed by HT 6. This in turn reinforced their questions about the appropriateness of HEIs taking the lead in training and recruitment.

However, as the findings show, this experience of partnership was certainly not that of all HTs in the study. The "natural progression" described by HT 7.1 was seen as a development of the success of this approach for HT7 as well as part of the expectations that came with their teaching school status. This experience of partnership appears to have its foundations in a more collaborative model which goes beyond the complementary role of Edwards and Mutton (2007:507). The success of this partnership highlights the significance of the 'delicately negotiated' arrangements which are the foundation of those effective partnerships described by Edwards and Mutton (2007:506) in section 2.2.2. Alternatively, this suggests that the perceptions of HTs in relation to training and recruitment underlines the concept of the street level bureaucrats (Lipsky, 2010:11) outlined in section 2.1.3. This would appear to reinforce the challenges for schools and HEIs of mediating the policy and the practice to form a partnership agreement which reflects the anticipated roles of successive governments for the joint management of ITE (Spendlove, Howes and Wake, 2010:74). Yet, while HTs perceived an opportunity to address their concerns by taking the lead in the training and recruitment, afforded in the White Paper, The Importance of Teaching (DfE, 2010), care must be taken in interpreting the narrative presented to this point as dissatisfaction with the role of HEIs and a lack of willingness to engage in future partnerships with HEIs for the preparation of future teachers. The data suggests that this was not the case. In interview 1, HTs 4.1, 11.1 and 12.1 all

commented on existing partnership activities across a range of undergraduate programmes with other HEIs for both supervision of student teachers and collaborative approaches to teaching. HTs' perceptions of future partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools will be explored in more detail in the analysis and discussion for RQ3. While this study focusses on a school-led PGCE route, the findings highlight the complexities of partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools which could also be a feature of other programmes of ITT. Consequently, it would be pertinent to re-evaluate future partnership agreements between HEIs and schools to reflect the complexities of partnership arrangements across the 'myriad of routes' into teaching (see section 2.2.3) identified in the House of Commons Committee of Public accounts (2016:6).

6.4.4 "…willing to support that preparation." (HT 11.1)

Based on these experiences of partnership between HEIs and schools, the opportunity to take the lead in training and recruitment and work within a SDA to create and ensure good quality placements would seem to be a central issue in the decision to take the lead in ITT. As the literature presented in section 1.3 determines, a key aspect of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) is the recruitment agenda, that is recruitment to a programme of ITT by the SDA to meet the recruitment needs of their school clusters. Furlong (2005:121) proposes that mandating joint responsibilities in the area of recruitment and training was an act of power by government which effectively downgraded the role of HEIs and moved the preparation of future teachers further away from a partnership between schools and HEIs (section 3.2.6). An alternative drawn from the findings of my study could be that the prospect of recruitment by HTs

for their school clusters is an attractive and significant proposition which has its origins in the discourse of teacher accountability and teacher professionalism of the new millennium. Here, the shift of emphasis from the rationality of accountability in the new millennium to the rationality of teacher professionalism is pertinent. It has repositioned schools from the 'docile bodies' that Lemke (2002:3) identified in section 3.2.8 to ones who were given the opportunity to take a more 'dominant' role in ITT (see section 1.6). The educational reform set out by the Coalition Government in the publication 'The importance of teaching' (DfE, 2010) which was outlined in section 1.6, has given HTs the power to take the lead in the recruitment process.

Identifying "high-quality people" (HT8.1) and those who would "have a good chance of it" (HT 3.1) would indicate that the performance of student teachers was high stakes and led to the dissatisfaction set out in the findings. This dissatisfaction was that expressed by HTs in their recent experiences of student teachers/NQTs which was recounted in relation to the impact on pupil performance. I would argue that this emphasis on performance is rooted in part in HTs' experiences of the rationality of accountability, specifically the increased regulation and control of schools outlined in section 3.2.7. The significance of taking the lead in the recruitment process appears to support this and is illustrated in the comment of HT 4.1 that "satisfactory is no longer OK." Based on the comments of HTs 3.1, 5.1 and 8.1, taking the lead in the recruitment process is about recruiting high-quality students to the profession. The data from interview 1 emphasises the significance of this for the HTs in this study whose comments mirror those of HT10.1 in a "try before you buy" concept of the recruitment process. My interpretation of the data suggests that for the HTs in this study the SD model was seen as a way into the recruitment of NQTs. Further scrutiny

of the data reveals that this was significant not solely for the profession but for these schools in the SDA. This is supported by the view of HT 5.1 who described the SD model of ITT as a chance to "shape our kind of teacher" and HT 12.1 who described "growing our own." Reflecting on this perspective in conjunction with HTs' dissatisfaction with the quality of student teachers/NQTs outlined in the findings, it could be argued that the HTs in this study viewed the interview process by which potential students were offered a place on the programme as the first stage of recruitment to a teaching post in their SDA. The "recruitment avenue of staff" highlighted by HT 4.1 in the findings acknowledges the benefits for a school in recruiting an NQT from within the SDA in line with their employment needs. The significance of understanding the day to day workings of a particular school, their routines and their procedures was acknowledged as particularly relevant on pupil outcomes.

Analysis of this leads me to suppose that the interpretation of intent between government and school, Ball's policy and practice (2012:45), are aligned in that government seeks to improve educational standards by way of improving the quality of teachers and, in giving schools the power to take the lead, the government's intent on good teachers training future teachers is made real. HTs' perceptions of the benefits of owning and locating the training in the SDA appear to support the rationale of the Coalition government's agenda outlined as a means of making it easier for schools to employ the qualified teachers with the range of skills that they need' (DfE, 2011: see section 1.4). Additionally, in this study, a HT's clear vision of the characteristics and skills of an NQT could offer another explanation as to why HT3.1's evaluation of a potential student appeared to clash with their HEI colleagues

on recent experiences of interviewing. Further scrutiny of the comments by HTs1.1, 3.1, 7.1, 8.1 and 12.1 in the findings in section 6.4.1 indicate that their descriptions of a suitable candidate were couched in relation to the skills and qualities that they would look for in a potential NQT. Adding to his comments the data shows how HT 5.1 clarified this further: "The teachers that we've recruited, I was looking for people that were a little bit quirky… individuals that have something unique and challenging to offer our school." Given the accounts of the interview process of HT 3.1 and HT 2.1 in the findings it would appear to confirm the view that this was indeed the case and the interview process was the first step for HTs to recruit potential students who embodied the characteristics that they were looking for in future staff.

6.4.5 A growing disquiet

I suggest that it is at this juncture that the power relations between stakeholders in ITE which underpin this research and are outlined in theme four of the literature review begin to emerge. While these are discussed as power relations between government and schools and power relations between schools and HEIs, these are not discrete power relations between stakeholders in ITE but are interconnected and therefore complex, consequently I argue that it is in this complexity that the relational context of power described by Foucault (1982:789) exists. Based on the data presented I propose that power relations between the stakeholders in ITE reside in the publication of The White Paper (DfE, 2010) and the introduction of the SD model of ITT acted as a catalyst for 'the shifting and changing interactive network of social relations' between the stakeholders in ITE as described by Ball (2012:30). Based on my interpretations of power critiqued in section 3.2.3, power exists in the interactions

between the stakeholders of ITE and is situated in those actions of government, of HEI, or of schools. Consequently, the actions of one influence the actions of another. Power relations between government and schools shifted with the move from the rationality of accountability to the rationality of professionality (see section 3.2.7). In this, the action taken by the Coalition government to raise standards through the reform of education outlined in the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) was one which gave schools a much greater role in teacher training at graduate level. It is the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010), that is the legislative policy of the Coalition government, and the interpretation of this policy, the practice by HEIs and schools, which would seem to embody the techniques of power outlined by Ball (2012:45) in his interpretation of the works of Foucault (see section 3.2.5). It is the action by government in giving schools the opportunities afforded in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) and the perceptions of this action by schools and HEIs which I believe exemplify the relational context of power described by Garnar (2006:351) and embody Foucault's 'set of actions upon other actions' (Foucault, 1982:789). In taking the lead in the recruitment and training process, what HTs 3.2 (field notes), HT6.2 (field notes) and HT 8.2 refer to as "ownership" of the training process, schools exercised their power to respond to their experiences of the functions of the partnership. In these actions the complex power relations between government, HEIs and schools begin to become apparent. HTs perceived that the SD model of ITT gave them clarity about their roles and responsibilities in the preparation of future teachers and in taking the decision to involve their schools in ITT, this action of HTs shifts the power relations between schools and HEIs. It is the action of government and subsequent action upon this by schools which I suggest is the substance of the

downgrading of HEIs identified by commentators in HEI, for example Furlong (2005:123) in section 3.2.6.

6.4.6 A disposition to take the lead in ITT

The data presented to this point would appear to indicate that it was HTs' first-hand experiences of partnership arrangements which challenged their views of the traditional approach to ITT and resulted in their decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT. However, this is a simplistic interpretation which does not take account the fact that the narrative of the HTs in this study positioned these experiences in a range of interactions with student teachers/NQTs and colleagues from HEIs. My interpretation of the data highlights the significance of these experiences and interactions which contributed to developing HTs' perceptions of ITT. Furthermore, the development of these perceptions do not appear to be rooted solely in each HT's experience of partnership with HEIs. In section 6.4.4 I alluded to the impact of power relations between government and schools as part of the continued focus on increasing standards in education and this may suggest that it is a range of experiences and encounters in different contexts over a period of time which could be significant. It is these encounters and experiences over the course of their career that I believe shape the participant HTs' perceptions and beliefs about ITT and underpin the decision to take the lead in ITT. To frame this analysis, I now return to Bourdieu's theoretical framework, his 'primary thinking tools' (Bourdieu in Wacquant, 1988:5 cited in Rawolle and Lingard, 2008:739). In doing so I would agree with Ajzen (1991:179) cited in section 3.1.2 that applying a theoretical framework to the behaviour of the HTs is a challenging task and one to which I return in RQ2 & 3. However, in relation

to RQ1, it is the Bourdieusian concept of the habitus, specifically the interrelated concept of disposition set out in theme 3, which I believe is pertinent. Acknowledging this challenge, I feel that it is useful to reiterate the definition of the habitus as outlined in section 3.4 which is based on Bourdieu's later works. Bourdieu explains that habitus is 'systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures' (1990:53). In short, habitus is something that embodies and characterises an individual, their way 'of standing, speaking, walking, and thereby of feeling and thinking' (Bourdieu, 1990:70) and it is this embodiment, this essence of an individual which I believe forms the link between the HTs in this study and their behaviour, that is their decision to involve their schools in ITT. Returning to the data, I suggest that the feelings of frustration in the organisation of placements expressed by HTs 10.1 and 8.1 and those feelings of disappointment expressed by HTs 1.1 and 3.1 when recounting their unique experiences of the recruitment of students to a programme of ITT, structured each HT's view of working in partnership with HEIs for the preparation of future teachers. In this I mean that for each of the participating HTs, every experience and interaction shaped their reality, their perception of the world of ITT. The significance of this is posited by Harker (2016) in section 3.1.4 where he explains that in the experience of first-hand encounters individual histories are constructed and in turn these experiences become internalised to form the basis of an individual's deeply held beliefs and values. Harker continues that accordingly, an individual's life story is in part determined and shaped by their past experiences, their personal histories, and it is these past experiences which fuse with first-hand experiences and influence an individual's future thoughts and actions. This would appear to both support and extend my view on the significance of the experiences of HTs in this study and leads

me to conclude that for the participating HTs, it is these experiences which underpin the decision to involve their schools in ITT. The dissatisfaction expressed by HT 5.1 in interview 1 seems to represent the views of many of the HTs in this study and could be the culmination of these experiences and interactions within the field of ITT. Yet the data also suggests that these experiences have been part of what I interpreted as a 'growing disquiet' (section 6.2.4) which leads me to consider that there are other factors which underpin the decision of the participating HTs to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT. Here, the current political climate at the time of data collection outlined in theme 1 of chapter 2 also appears to be significant. This set the scene for the permitting circumstances which empowered HTs to take the lead in ITT by way of the SD model set out in the White Paper (DfE, 2010). However, creating the permitting circumstances for taking the lead in ITT combined with HTs experiences of ITT does not necessarily result in these opportunities being taken up. Utilising Bourdieu's concept of the habitus and the interrelated concept of disposition brings an additional element to this which strengthens my view expressed in section 6.2.2 that taking the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT was more than the HTs simply 'flexing their muscles.'

My belief in the significance of these first hand encounters can be explained by considering what Bourdieu (1990:53) terms 'transposable dispositions,' that is the internal structures of a person's being, their disposition which become a lens through which an individual views and constructs their 'understanding of the world around them' (Hawthorn 2016). For the HTs in this study this is their understanding of their role in the preparation of future teachers within the field of ITT in which they operated ostensibly in partnership with HEIs. Furthermore, the data indicates that it

was experiences and interactions over a period of time which led to doubts and uneasiness (see section 6.4.3) and resulted in the 'growing disquiet' in the functions of the partnership. This would suggest that these perceptions, these beliefs about ITT do not remain static. With each new experience, perceptions change and for the HTs in this study, as perceptions of ITT change, so does their view of how appropriate the traditional model of ITT is for the preparation of future teachers. This process would seem to support the concept of 'constructivist structuralism' (Bourdieu 1987:5) in section 3.1.4 where an individual makes a decision on the basis of a variety of social interactions, lifelong experiences both personal and professional all of which influence and shape their habitus. Given this I argue that it would be understandable that creating the circumstances, the opportunity for ownership of the recruitment and training would lead to the disposition, a tendency towards taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers and consequently taking the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT.

6.4.7 "…the full cycle of an academic year" (HT5.2)

While HT experiences of both student teacher and NQT quality highlighted in 6.4.3 led to their decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT, analysis of the data revealed shared perceptions of all HTs about the benefits of situating students in the SDA for their training. While the value of this for the appointment of NQTs as part of the recruitment agenda has already been commented on as a positive in terms of pupil outcomes (see section 6.4.3), HTs commented on a range of benefits in the SD model which they perceived would lead to good teaching, that is the high-quality outcomes for both student teachers/NQTs and pupils that HTs were aiming for. While

initial comments highlighted the belief that experiencing the day to day workings of the schools was a benefit of situating students in school, further analysis of this data made real the process of a 'double hermeneutic' described by Smith et al. (2009 cited in Finlay, 2014b:127) in section 5.9. As a researcher this meant that in endeavouring to make sense of HTs' responses about their decision to involve their schools in school-led ITT, I explored the data at different levels taking into account both the response of the participants and the language they used to illustrate the relevance of situating the students in school and its relation to good teaching and therefore pupil outcomes. While each HT gave distinct examples, the data revealed some shared perceptions. For example, HT2.1 perceived that situating the students in school was an opportunity to observe and practise a range of teaching strategies and concluded that school was the best place for "students to experience pedagogy" (HT2.1). This was a view supported by a number of HTs for example HT 1.2, 5.1 and 3.1 who saw this as an essential component of preparing students to be good teachers.

The comments of the HTs about the perceived benefits which come from situating student teachers in school and the relationship with good teaching are perhaps not surprising. The importance of school-based experience has always been a feature of all programmes of ITE and a central tenet of government policy in mandating partnership agreements for the preparation of teachers since 1992 (see section 2.1). Yet it is the emphasis by HTs on the benefits of situating the student in school "over the full cycle of an academic year" (HT5.2) which I believe could be seen as a significant factor in HTs taking the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT. The data from interview 1 supports this and additional comments from HT 11.1 indicates that all HTs perceived this would give greater "continuity for both

student teachers and pupils in school" (HT 11.1) which would lead to good teaching, those high-quality outcomes for both student teachers/NQTs and pupils that HTs were aiming for: these were a feature of the comments of HT 1.1, HT 5.2 (field notes) and HT8.1 in the findings. This was supported by HT 1.1 who outlined the impact of seeing a student through the full cycle of an academic year for the assessment process for QTS: "I can see them growing in confidence, taking on the role and get evidence for assessing standard 8" (HT1.1). The significance of this will be explored further in RQ2.

Interestingly, the benefits of situating the students in school expressed by the HTs would seem to indicate support for the apprenticeship approach to ITT valued by Gove and which underpins government legislation in the White Paper (DfE, 2010). This is interesting because here teaching is viewed as a skill and one that is best learnt from working alongside the best teachers. The view of HT 10.1 that "…they're surrounded by outstanding practitioners" appears to confirm that this is the case. In continuing comments HT 10.1 reflected on the value of the increased time of school which HTs believed was a feature of the SD model of ITT. "They're in school an awful lot more…this should have a positive impact on their teaching." However, I suggest that this could be viewed as a simplistic interpretation of what is a more complex issue reflecting views of teaching and approaches to training which form the basis of discussion in RQ2 (see section 6.5.4)

While in interview 1 all HTs agreed on the benefits of situating student teachers in school and the potential impact of this on the quality of teaching, I would argue it was not solely situating the student in school over the full cycle of the academic year

which led to the anticipated benefits to student and pupil outcomes recounted by HT 1.1, 5.2 and 8.1 in the findings. The data from interview 2 indicates that the serial attachment in the host school was seen as a positive on student outcomes as a result of the planned opportunities in both SDAs to experience different aspects of school life. Reflecting on the benefits of the SD model of ITT, HT 11.2 outlined various opportunities that student teachers had been "steered towards" and able to experience as a result of being in school for these extended periods. Further examples of this will be outlined in the findings RQ2 and will be explored in relation to demonstrating the Teaching Standards for the award of QTS (see section 6.5.7). In analysing HT comments in interview 2 the benefits of situating students in school over the full cycle of the academic year for both student and pupil outcomes feature more often in one SDA. In reviewing the data this appears to be down to the organisation of the placements in this particular SDA where the serial attachment, first and final significant placement were also located in the host schools. Consequently, the data presented to this point suggests that it is the sustained experiences in the host school over the full cycle of the academic year which led to the positive impact on pupil outcomes recounted by the HTs in this SDA. It is important to acknowledge that I have alluded to a range of other factors raised by HTs which they perceived would impact on quality teaching as a result of situating the students in school and these will be explored as part of RQ2.

6.4.8 "…the calibre of the schools" (HT 1.1)

At first glance the narrative of the HTs suggest that involving their school in school-led ITT brings 'few rewards' beyond those associated with the traditional model. In

describing that involvement with the SD model was about “keeping things fresh” (HT4.1), this could be interpreted as an almost reflexive response that reflects on the benefits of having students in school as opposed to the benefits of taking the lead by way of the SD model. Given that the participating HTs all had first hand experiences of mentoring student teachers over a number of years and had staff in their schools with this same experience, this did not seem to reflect the “hugely beneficial” outcomes of taking the lead in ITT cited by HT 8.1. However, in noting that “if members of staff train other people they become better at it themselves” the comments of HT 5.1 appear to underpin the view of HTs that the SD model of ITT offered an expansion of roles for all staff in school to be involved in the preparation of future teachers which would impact on whole school development. Further scrutiny of the data supports this and HTs recounted a number of examples ranging from teaching staff observing and giving feedback to a potential student teacher after a teaching task, to administrative staff inducting the student teachers in the first few weeks of the course. Furthermore while the “in house nature” of this expressed by HT 6.1 could well refer to the development of personal and whole school professional skills as a consequence of taking the lead in ITT, the follow up comments by HT6.1 indicate that it is the composition of the SDA which is perceived as a benefit of involving their school in SD: a view supported by other HTs in this study. At first glance this does not give the impression that it is of any consequence as the composition of the two SDAs in this study reflects the guidance outlined in The White Paper (DfE, 2010) and supporting documentation (DfE, 2013). This stipulates that the SD model of ITT will be led and supported by outstanding/good schools. Furthermore, while ‘A guide to School Direct’ (DfE 2014) sets out the administrative duties and responsibilities for the lead school, there is little guidance about the composition of the Alliance (see

section 1.4). The data indicates that for the HTs in this study the setting up of an SDA was not merely about finding any good/outstanding school to work with. In referring to "the calibre of the schools" (HT 1.1) the data reveals that despite each HT having a commitment to be more involved in the preparation of future teachers, it is the composition of the SDA and the collaboration with 'known' schools which will be supporting the preparation of these future teachers either in organising placements or in the planning and delivery of the training which is a significant factor in taking the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT. This would seem to be at odds with section 6.4.6 whereby I argued that the HTs in this study had a 'disposition to take the lead' in ITT and that the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT was as a result of their prior histories and construction of social reality. However, I determined that an individual's disposition is formed through interaction in a range of social spaces and consequently it is the consideration of these social spaces which is pertinent. Accordingly, based on my analysis of the data from interview 1, I offer further clarification about the significance of this collaboration for the participant HTs in making the decision to involve their schools in the SD model of ITT this study and I return once again to the theoretical frameworks of Bourdieu to support this. In my interpretation of the data I suggest it is relevant to conceptualise the SDA in this study as a micro field (see section 3.1.7) embedded within the field of ITT and a 'field' in which the HTs come together to socially interact to achieve this shared vision. Furthermore, the literature presented in section 3.1.7 suggests that a field is structured internally by both the social positions, the capital that each individual occupies and the power relations operating within that field. For the HTs in this study it is their cultural capital "the power granted to those who have obtained sufficient recognition to be in a position to impose recognition" (Bourdieu 1990:138)

which is germane to this thesis. I suggest that their 'cultural capital' is founded both in their qualifications which validate them as professionals in the field of ITT and their knowledge and understanding of the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, in line with the views of Ferrare and Apple (2015.47), I suggest that the field of a SDA could be viewed as autonomous, operating around the cultural capital that these HTs bring to the field of a SDA. Consequently, it is their cultural capital as a HT of a good/outstanding school which has given them the power to take the lead in ITT: this power has been bestowed upon them by the Coalition government in the White Paper (DfE, 2010). In noting "that the people that we'd got on board wanted the same things that we wanted" the comments of HT 8.1 indicate that the setting up an SDA was strategic, finding the right teachers in the right schools to collaborate with to achieve the shared vision: that of high-quality student teachers/NQTs. While the comments of HT 8.1 seem to hint at the existence of a hierarchy of power relations within the SDA, further scrutiny of the narratives of the HTs in this study does not support this view at this point. The view of HT 12.1 and HT 11.1 in the findings suggests that HTs perceived the composition of the SDA to be a more evenly balanced 'differentiation or distribution' (Bourdieu, 1985:724) of power, one which 'courted' their capital, their skills and talents in the field of ITT. For the HTs in this study, the significance of forming a SDA seems to be based on the idea of both a shared philosophy for the preparation of future teachers and a mutual respect of individual capital. This will be explored in more detail in RQ3.

6.4.9 Concluding comments for RQ1

The analysis and discussion of the findings relating to RQ1 reveal the perceptions of taking the lead in the SD model of ITT for the HTs in this study. Analysis of the data related to RQ1, reveals that for the HTs in this study the decision to involve their schools in school-led ITT by way of the SD model is complex and rooted in HTs' experiences of working in partnership with HEIs over a number of years for the preparation of future teachers. In recounting their perceptions of ITE at the beginning of their journey taking the lead in ITT, the 'voices' of the HTs in interview 1 emphasise their dissatisfaction in the recent quality of both NQTs and student teachers. However, my interpretation of the data shows that the reality of this dissatisfaction is founded in their disappointment in the actuality of partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs over a number of years. The narrative of the HTs reveals a perception that their role in the preparation of future teachers has been undervalued and that the power to redefine their role has been given to them by way of the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010). In taking this decision my analysis of the data exposes the interconnected nature of power relations between the three stakeholders in ITE, the government, schools and HEIs. The relational aspects of these power relations are complex, rooted in Foucault's (1982: 789) techniques of power. For the HTs in this study, the opportunity to take ownership of the recruitment and training afforded by way of the SD model redresses their view of the inequality of partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs and is a key factor in choosing to involve their school in school-led ITT. In exploring the 'intangible' feelings and perceptions of the HTs in this study the significance of Bourdieu's concept of the habitus and the associated concepts of field and cultural capital are used to offer a possible rationale for understanding how these and other experiences may lead to a

disposition to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. Consequently, these experiences form part of HTs' 'personal histories' and it is the construction of these personal histories that I suggest underpins the decision to involve their schools in ITT. While my analysis and description of the findings in relation to RQ 1 are mainly located in theoretical frameworks the data highlights that for the participating HTs the tangible benefits of taking the lead in ITT extend beyond addressing their disappointment with partnership arrangements with HEIs. The opportunity to situate student teachers in the school over the full cycle of the academic year and collaborate with other schools for personal and professional development were two notable areas identified by HTs.

6.5 Research Question 2. How do their perceptions of ITE influence this decision to take the lead in school-led ITT for the preparation of future teachers?

The data for RQ2 was mainly drawn from HTs' responses to key questions 2 and 3 in interview 1 and interview 2 and originated primarily in key themes 3 (Composition of the SDA), 5 (Curriculum for ITT) and 6 (Immersion in the life of the school). While responses were still unique and varied there was greater consensus between HTs in each of the two SDA evident in themes 5 and 6.

6.5.1 Findings

HTs' perceptions of ITT were rooted in their views about the Curriculum for ITT (theme 5) and their role in planning and delivery. HT4.1 commented that as schools had a vested interest in preparing good NQTs:

> "It's important that we have that input into the staff that are coming out of Colleges and Universities and…and that we make sure that they know the standards that we expect and we want."

As HT 4.1 continued, in taking the lead in ITT "we'd have more input into (pause) what was being delivered...and how." This was a view supported by HT51, 9.1, 11.1, 12.1 and led to their commitment to have more *Ownership of the curriculum for ITT* (theme 5.4) as part of the preparation of future teachers. HT8.1 considered the SD model a more "intrinsic" [natural and complete] approach to ITT as opposed to other programmes delivered by HEIs and believed that taking the lead in ITT gave the SDA the chance "to fill from our own programme…any gaps that we were seeing [in students from partner HEIs] so we are creating we feel (erm) a better-rounded student." This idea that SD "gives [schools] the opportunity to create teachers" (H12.1) was supported by HTs 3.1 4.2, 6.1, 8.1, 9.1 who perceived that this ownership of the curriculum would lead to a "richer experience" of ITT (HT3.1). An important feature of this experience was embedded in the organisation of the PGCE with QTS in this model of SD (see section 1.5) which meant that the students "will be based in school where they're fully immersed" (HT6.1). HT9.1 commented that this immersion meant students would get "more involved in school and […] get the flavour of life more than just coming for two or three weeks at a time." As HT4.2 remarked

> "when they're in school for that amount of time they see that routines can go out of the window, things happen, and they have to react to certain things as well as certain things being in place."

HT6.1 commented:

> "…joining in the life of the school, contributing in staff meeting, going into the clubs, coming into parents evening, all those things that you have to do [in SD] they get a rounded view of what being a teacher is like and that makes them employable."

This was reinforced by HT 7.2 who suggested that as a result of this experience of the life of the school, students were better able to understand the demands of the teaching profession and decide if the job was for them or not. This was understood as having a positive impact on recruitment to teaching particularly in the area of *NQT resilience* (theme 6.3). As an example of this, HT7.2 cited two students who were "question marking whether the profession is for them." and posited that "because they've got this realistic view and they've been through this year, they're more likely not to go into the job."

Furthermore, the perception by HTs was that this Immersion in the life of the school (theme 6) was also viewed as a way of giving authenticity to *Demonstrating the*

Teachers' Standards for QTS (theme 6.1). As HT 4.2 noted "it's very different than them just being written on a piece of paper, they've got to be alive in that classroom." The data collected certainly supported the idea that this was so and examples of where these standards were "alive" (HT 4.2) were cited by HTs in interview 2. Here HTs 1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 19.2 and 11.2 recounted where they had observed evidence of students demonstrating and sustaining aspects of practice related to The Teachers' Standards as a direct consequence of locating the student in a host school over the period of the programme (HTs. 1.2; 2.2 ;9.2 ;11.2; 12.2). HTs believed that the organisation of the school-based element impacted positively on their ability to grade student teachers' performance and assess the standards accurately: this was particularly evident in confirming grades for Standard 8 and part B of the Teaching Standards. HT 1.1 observed "so actually you tend to gloss over it, you tend to say, 'well you've not had the opportunity,' or you create opportunities so that they can show it so you can tick a box." It was felt that in the traditional model of ITT this was an area that was difficult for students to evidence and sustain: "There are things on the Teachers' Standards that it's really hard for [the student] to show in a 6-week block" (HT1.1). The benefits of this for the students were not solely about working in one school. HTs commented about the value of the SDA and the opportunity to communicate across the Alliance so that they had a comprehensive view of students when they were "working in other schools with different teachers and in a range of contexts in the Alliance" HT 11.2. This experience within the SDA meant that HTs had evidence of student teachers demonstrating elements of the standards over a period of time and added a further dimension to the benefits of students being in school over the full cycle of the academic year which had not previously been considered. In one example, HT 8.2 reflected on the value of a sustained opportunity to work with parents, "he's been

involved with meeting parents…over the year, I don't think students in four to six weeks, they don't get that experience." Furthermore HTs 1.2, 3.4 (field notes), 11.2 and 12.2 also commented that in immersing student teachers in the life of the school it was an opportunity to *Instil professional expectations* (theme 6.2) of the standards embedded in the culture of the school. HT10.2 expanded on this by recounting an incident where the student teacher in the host school had the confidence to "behave" like a member of staff and uphold the standards of discipline of the school

> "… and I've heard, 'er what's going on here then?' and that was one of the students and he was sorting an issue out on the corridor…in exactly the same way any member of staff would have done that here…"

While these illustrations celebrated the success of assessment of the Teaching Standards as a result of immersing the students in the life of the schools, there were some alternative experiences which appear to confirm the validity of HTs' perceptions about the authenticity of this approach. HT 9.2 recounted an example where the student in school displayed a "very relaxed attitude" in a number of areas. Despite a number of interventions and "comments from his mentor" there was limited evidence of the high-quality outcomes the SDA aspired to and he was not recruited to a teaching post within the Alliance.

This authenticity of demonstrating and instilling professional standards was particularly significant for HTs in underpinning their approach to planning the

delivery and content of the programme. While the content had established parameters laid out by the partner HEI in line with the award of the PGCE (with QTS), a feature of this SD model of ITT that "contributed to the rich environment in which [the students were] working" (HT11.2) was seen by the HTs as being " the flexibility to offer placements and [primary curriculum] opportunities that would fit in with [student] development" (HT2.1). *Personalisation of the student experience* (theme 5.2), that is the opportunity to "create our own curriculum for [students], what we need and what we see…know that the students need" (HT8.1) was one aspect of the "rich curriculum environment" referred to by HT11.2 that HTs perceived HEI were unable to provide. This was highlighted by HTs 2.2, 5.2, 11.2 who gave various examples of how the content of the programme "can be made as personal as possible" (HT6.1) to meet the needs of the students and sustain motivation and facilitate choices. HT 2.2 illustrated this by recounting an outdoor learning day which "was fabulous and the feedback that [the teacher] got from the students but also from [the schools in the] Alliance was really positive." Alternatively, HT5.2 described an IT day where students worked with "a skilled practitioner who has won awards in this area" and used the school's extensive IT facilities to design multimedia teaching resources and then plan a scheme of work across key stages. Additionally as part of the programme both SDAs seized the chance to shape the student journey by offering students placements that were both diverse in context ranging from a small school to a large urban primary (HT 5.1, HT10.1) and a church school to a school catering for a range of SEND (HT3.1; HT6.1; HT11.1; HT12.1). This opportunity to offer a range of placements to meet individual student need was seen by HTs as noteworthy and making this possible in this model of ITT was an area of provision where HTs perceived that they had more flexibility than HEI. HT2.1 commented that "it's a lot

harder [for the university] to do it and it must be an absolute nightmare to do it and fit in everything else in as well. But I think being a smaller group we can actually do that." The composition of the SDA (theme 3) was seen as a contributing factor in facilitating this continuity of support. HTs 1.2, 4.2, 6.2 (field notes,) and 7.2 gave examples of how communication between the schools in the two SDAs had been easier and meant that support could be put in place where necessary. HT3.2 cited a "handover" conversation between 2 HTs who discussed future targets for a student teacher based on perceived areas which had been lacking while on placement. This ensured that the student could have more experience of planning and teaching across the foundation subjects (field notes HT3.2). Additionally, HT 2.2 explained how they had supported a student in addressing a weakness in an area of subject knowledge which had been assessed in a recent placement:

> "So, when she came back from her middle placement…the plan that we had for her we did change…she ended up teaching a lot more maths, was given a lot of support from the maths subject lead."

A particular strength of owning the training in the SD model of ITT was in the application of theory, "seeing it in action and then putting it into practice" (HT10.2). All HTs commented with both enthusiasm and motivation (field notes) that this resulted in a more "seamless approach" (HT 5.2) to delivering pedagogy as the students "get that wider view, they don't see it just as English, Maths and Science and then all the little bits, they see the wholeness of it" (HT1.2). This belief underpinned

the planning of the programme which HT5.2 commented went beyond the traditional model of ITE:

> "It should be the way it's done, it's not just the stuff you need to know in terms of how to plan and what the NC is… in the context of all of that, the life of the school is going on as well it's eye-opening, enriching hopefully."

As HT 7.1 concluded, in comparison with their perception of the traditional PGCE route, "I think they're getting a better deal…obviously early days we're only in that first year…I think we have got a cracking, a cracking course."

The immediacy of putting into practice "pedagogy, learning about teaching, getting that professional understanding and being able to link theory to practice," (HT2.2) was seen as "really beneficial" (HT10.2) for HTs 1.1, 3.1, 5.1. As HT 10.2 observed:

> "…having subject and curriculum lectures at the host school and them coming back here and kind of putting it into practice…the opportunity to go into other classes and kind of have a look at how it's being done really."

HT1.2 supported this view:

> "These students have been able to, right from the beginning to have access to [the theory]…so you've been in [lectures] on the Wednesday and done phonics and you come back [into school] and…go in the different classes to observe that."

While this immediacy was perceived by HTs to be beneficial and a key driver in the decision to take the lead in ITT, the *Importance of pedagogy (theme 5.1)* was emphasised as part of the curriculum for ITT. HTs 1.1, 3.1, 4.1, 6.1, 7.1 defined pedagogy as the relationship between the theory of teaching and the practice. For example, HT2.1 went on to suggest that "the time spent in school is very, very valuable and the time to look at a whole range of things in school is fabulous" but then went onto emphasise that:

> "If not enough emphasis is put on the actual theory behind teaching and **then** [emphasis by HT] having the opportunity to put those theories into practice, if that's missing what would worry me is the difference you would get between a very good teaching assistant and a teacher."

This emphasis on putting theories into practice was also highlighted by HT1.1 who added "you can't say well you just have the practice…you know to be a proper teacher you do need to understand what it is." HTs' views about the importance of student teachers understanding the relationship between the theory of teaching and the

practice was reflected in the content of a PGCE with QTS that would be planned and delivered by the schools within the SDA. The opportunity to "create our own curriculum (HT 7.1) and start "from blank sheet… what are the skills we want [new teachers] to have" (HT7.1) was seen as both exciting and liberating.

However, despite the perception of owning the training process, HTs acknowledged that the starting point for planning the delivery of The curriculum for ITT (theme 5) was not a completely "blank sheet" (HT7.1) and added that "there's some things that are immovable [in the programme] …that the university is delivering." The *Role of the HEI* (theme 5.3) in the planning and delivery of the curriculum was defined by HT 8.1 who referred to the "core standards that have to be taught to every student" and comprised the M level modules which were taught by the partner HEI. Alternatively, "the other parts of the curriculum" for example pupil assessment and behaviour management which were based on school experience:

> "…would be [planned and] taught by professionals that were in the job…done by outstanding teachers, deputies, HTs and not necessarily lecturers [in HEI] that have not possibly been in the classroom for a long time."

Reflections on this at the end of the programme confirmed the success of this (HTs 1.2; 2.2; 6.2 field notes: 8.2; 10.2) as HT7.2 concluded:

> "I think that the course content, the fact that it was all delivered by experts in their fields or practitioners that had been carefully chosen from our partner schools, I think that was really beneficial."

However, while the perceptions of HTs across the two SDAs were that school colleagues were best placed to deliver these other parts of the curriculum there were both convictions and hesitations about this responsibility. HT 5.2 described how students had been taught the most recent innovations [in maths and literacy] by leading teachers who were "oozing in up to date pedagogy and research." Additionally, HT 12.2 described how she had been able to give greater "exposure" to one of the foundation subjects in the National Curriculum (NC) "by giving more time and focus in school-based activities" than she believed would have been given in the HEI. However, HT2.1 offered an alternative perspective commenting that the pressure to deliver "up to date pedagogy in terms of the theories, in terms of current thinking in terms of action research" led to a conflict of priorities while running a school. "With the best will in the world we've a bigger job and to keep up to date with that side of things I think is almost…we can't do it." HT3.1 admitted that "subject knowledge is bothering me at this point. That is the thing…that I'm just a little bit edgy about." HT3.1 clarified this by explaining that while there had been updating nationally for current school priorities of assessment for learning and behaviour for example, the reduction in time of teaching the foundation subjects had, in her view, resulted in a lack of up to date subject knowledge. Citing her main subject interest of art, she explained, "it's when you get to your little subjects you know the ones that are meant to make children's lives really exciting and the curriculum really rich." It was in these

comments that the *Role of the HEI* in the training process materialised and became more clearly defined. The significance of this role was clarified by HT 6 who emphasised that the Role of the HEI in the curriculum for ITT was that it "provides that academic rigour in the context of the [award of the] PGCE." HT6.1 fully endorsed the rationale of "experts in their field" (HT8.1) taking ownership of the programme of study for the award of QTS (conferred at the time of this research by the NCTL) maintaining that "we do think in schools, we're not stupid...in many ways we're equally at the forefront of learning as university people" (HT6.1). However, he went on to comment that "I personally think that having an academic…some sort of research base learning element to a course is pivotal," and he conceded "that's what universities have always offered."

While HTs recognised the benefits of this route into ITT through *Ownership of the recruitment and training process* (theme 2.2), in acknowledging the "immovable" (HT7.1) elements of the programme, there were still areas where the SDA felt they were "very constrained with the university's protocols" (HT7.2). These constraints were highlighted by HTs 1.2, 5.2, 8.2 and 12.2 and were primarily in the area of recruitment and the interviewing process. As HT 8.2 commented:

> "I was absolutely shell-shocked with … the amount of paperwork that we were expected to complete and the UCAS side of things and all the electronic systems that we had to input information into, which just felt completely alien."

It was felt that as a result of these constraints, “what we felt were important to teacher training… some of those things had to fall by the wayside because they didn’t necessarily fall in with the university’s constraints” (HT7.2)

6.5.2 Analysis and discussion of the findings of Research Question 2

The findings of RQ1 reveal HTs’ perceptions of partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. The data shows how this frames their beliefs about ITT and underpins the decision to take the lead in ITT by way of the SD model. Alternatively, building on these experiences, the findings of RQ 2 reflect the impact of HTs’ perceptions on creating and organising the student experience and the reality of this as part of their ownership of training and recruitment. Analysis of the data related to RQ2 revealed a number of overlapping themes as data were revisited and refined by participants in interview 2. Therefore, elements of the discussion are rooted in further examples of the theoretical frameworks presented in RQ1 and I will return to the works Foucault (1982:789) to introduce and explore examples of the transformational force of power. A key aim of my research was to give HTs a voice and add the perspective of the school to the body of research reflecting partnership between schools and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers. In section 2.2.8 I determined that this was generally written by researchers in and from the perspective of the HEIs (Ledoux and McHenry, 2008:156). In exploring HTs’ reality of taking the lead in ITT in their first year of SD, this discussion of the thesis’ findings seeks to reveal an alternative perspective of the function of the partnership between schools and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers. In interpreting the voice of the participant HTs in this study this perspective

will add to those of key commentators in HEI for example Furlong (2013a) and Murray and Passy (2014) and establish the significance of listening to the voices of the schools in future partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs. As I outlined in section 1.5, my role in HEI at the time of my research was supporting a SD Alliance which included consulting on course design and QA processes in HEI. As my workplace experiences at times mirrored that of the participants, collecting the data brought some tensions and challenges and it is therefore important to reassert the research processes outlined in section 5.9. Here I mitigated the impact of my own experiences by employing the phenomenological reduction (see section 5.7), that is immersing myself in the data and continually bracketing my own preconceptions in order to focus on grasping the reality of the HTs world.

6.5.3 "A better-rounded student" HT 8.1

Despite the emphasis on the SD model as a basis for recruitment to schools within a SDA which was highlighted in RQ1, my interpretation of the data suggests that the HTs in this study perceived ownership of the training was a significant factor in choosing to take the lead in ITT. Ownership of the training was also one which fulfilled the shared responsibility of HEIs and school in the preparation of future teachers outlined in the DfE circulars 9/92 and 9/93 (see section 1.3) and subsequent legislation. The data showed that having "more input into what was being delivered…and how" seemed particularly attractive not only to HT 4.1 but to all HTs in the study and indicates the conviction that ownership would have a positive impact on the quality of student teachers to achieve the high-quality outcomes they aspired to. This vested interest in future teachers knowing the standards that schools "expect and

want" (HT 4.1) would appear to confirm the belief that this was an essential role for schools which went beyond the recruitment agenda and reflected their 'capital' to take a more dominant role in ITT. The comments of HT 8.1 in "addressing the gaps" in recent experience of the training by partner HEIs appear to corroborate this interpretation of the data and support the view of HTs that ownership of the training would give them the opportunity to address the two areas of dissatisfaction highlighted in RQ1: the organisation of placements and the preparation for placements. Further scrutiny of HTs' comments from interview 2 (data which explored their reality of ownership of the training in this first year of taking the lead in ITT) appear to confirm that HTs believed that this was the case and made real the "richer experience" of ITT perceived by HT 5.1 and resulted in the "better rounded student" highlighted by HT 8.1 in the findings. Additionally, this also brought about a more informed understanding of the success and challenges of organising the training in a programme of ITT.

6.5.4 A more "intrinsic" approach to ITT (HT8.1)

When comparing the data from interviews 1 and 2 the substance behind the view of HT 8.1 that being involved in the SD model of ITT would lead to a more "intrinsic" approach to ITT is revealed. In unravelling this view, the comments of HTs from interview 1 indicate that this was based on HTs' perceptions of their role in the preparation of future teachers in partnership with HEIs, a perception which led to what I interpret as a fragmented approach to the preparation of future teachers in the traditional model of ITE. For the HTs in this study, the idea of a natural and complete approach to ITT appears to be a significant driver in choosing to take the lead in the

preparation of future teachers. The data shows that this framed their approach to the planning and delivery of a curriculum for ITT across both SDAs. The opportunity to customise the curriculum for ITT based on their perceptions and beliefs was a feature of all HTs' responses and indicate that for the HTs in this study, what I propose had been a tacit acceptance of the partnership model described by McNamara et al. (2013:657) in which schools provide the context for the assessment of the standards through school based practice, appears to be changing (see section 2.2.2). The "wholeness of" the student experience cited by HT1.2 appears to be an important feature of customising the provision in the SDA and led to the view that the SD model of ITT leads to "a better deal" (HT7.1 in the findings). This view seems to be embedded in a perception that that the curriculum offered by HEIs was limited and inflexible. Reflections on the value of the SD model confirmed this in interview 2, where HT 7.2 expanded on the "cracking course" by highlighting the opportunities for innovation and flexibility that ownership of the curriculum for ITT afforded. "It's the fact that you're able to tailor things just like that," a view that was demonstrated in the planning for the student experience across both SDAs (see section 6.4.5). The findings suggest that HTs believed that the SD model of ITT gave them an opportunity to develop an alternative construct of training, one which was founded on the flexibility to respond to the needs of student teachers and schools. Data from interview 2 determines that for the majority of HTs in this study, the reality of their experience in this first year of taking the lead not only endorsed this view but led them to consider that, for the preparation of future teachers, the SD model of ITT "should be the way it's done" (HT 5.2 in the findings) across all programmes of ITT. This will be explored further in RQ3.

In having the autonomy for training (and recruitment) it would seem that the liberating and transformational elements of power identified by Ball (2017:35) in section 3.2.3 come to fruition. In being given the power to take the lead in ITT, HTs have responded by 'seizing' the opportunity to take ownership of the training by way of the SD model of ITT. The concept of power as a creative source is realised as HTs are both empowered to address their concerns in the traditional model of ITE and inspired to create an alternative approach which is underpinned by a vision of the student experience as a whole. In taking this opportunity the HTs in this study reshape and develop their role in the partnership which appears to epitomise the collaborative model suggested by Furlong et al., (2000:79) in section 2.2.4. In establishing that "this is the way it should be done" (HT 5.1), this exercise of power would seem to support the view of Gallagher (2008:397) in section 3.2.3 who suggests that such actions underpin the advancement of individuals and societies. In shaping and developing their role, it would appear that the option to take the lead in an alternative to the traditional model of ITE has resulted in the growth of HTs and the 'advancement' of approaches to the preparation of future teachers in the field of ITT. Furthermore, in rooting the planning and delivery of the training in the "wholeness" of the student experience, I would suggest that the data from interview 2 is further evidence of the participating HTs' 'cultural capital' identified in RQ1 and outlined in section 3.3. This would appear to give credence to the Coalition government's decision to give outstanding schools a much greater role the preparation of future teachers outlined in the White Paper (DfE, 2010: see section 1.3). In identifying a "more intrinsic approach" (HT 5.2) it would seem that HTs' perceptions of what constitutes a curriculum for ITT have gone beyond the apprenticeship approach to training expressed by Gove and embedded in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) that teaching is a

technical craft (see section 1.6). The motivation and enthusiasm for "creating the curriculum" set out by HT 8.1 indicates a developing construct of a programme for ITT in which schools take a greater role for planning and delivering elements of a programme of ITT. This will be explored in more detail in section 6.4.6.

6.5.5 "…alive in that classroom" (HT 4.1)

The findings highlight the concerns of the HTs in this study about fulfilling their role in mentoring and assessing the Teaching Standards for the award of QTS (DfE, 2011). In noting "that it's really hard for students" in the context of a "6-week block," HT 1.1 reveals the HTs' perception of the reality of the assessment process in the traditional model of ITE and indicates a view of what I interpret as a frustration in the piecemeal approach to assessment of the Teaching Standards. In identifying this as a "tick a box" exercise and in admitting that there was a tendency to "gloss over" aspects of the Teaching Standards (DfE, 2011) particularly Standard 8, HT1.1 represents the views of other HTs in the study in emphasising the challenges for student teachers in meeting and sustaining this Standard. References to the Teaching Standards (DfE, 2011) in interviews 1 and 2 is not in itself surprising. The data shows that the assessment of student teachers as part of the school-based element of a programme of ITT is a responsibility which is 'second nature' for the HTs in this study as part of the joint responsibilities between schools and HEIs outlined by McNamara et al. (2013:657) for the preparation of future teachers (see section 2.2.2). However, the data from interview 1 suggests that HTs believed that their ability to fulfil their mandated role in the partnership (see section 2.2.4), that is providing the context for student teachers to be assessed and acting as mentor and assessor for the award of QTS, was

constrained by the organisation of the traditional model of ITE. To this effect the comments of HT 1.1 support the view that HTs believed this in turn impacted on their ability to accurately grade the competencies for the award of QTS. In recounting the positive experience of organising the training, the comments of HTs 11.2 and 8.2 in the findings show that there was a perceptible shift in HTs' views of the value of situating the student in school over the full cycle of the academic year (see section 6.4.7). The experiences within the SDA cited by HTs 9.2 and 10.2 in the findings meant that HTs had evidence of student teachers demonstrating elements of the Teaching Standards over a period of time. Whereas perceptions of this had previously formed the basis of exploring a student's commitment to teaching and understanding of the role of the teachers, HTs appeared to reconceptualise this as an opportunity for a more holistic and therefore authentic assessment of student teachers against the standards for QTS across the SDA. I suggest that this view adds a further dimension to the benefits of students being in school over the full cycle of the academic year which had not previously been considered.

6.5.6 "…as personal as possible" (HT6.1)

Evidence in the findings highlights the significance of taking ownership of the training for HTs in a number of areas, areas which HTs believed responded to the perceived inflexibility of the training provided by HEIs. The data from interview 2 demonstrates the significance for the HTs of the "smaller group" (HT2.1) in being able to personalise provision to meet student need. The illustrations of HTs 2.2 and 5.2 offer some innovative approaches to planning and delivering a curriculum for ITT which appear to highlight the benefits of having access to "skilled practitioners" (HT5.2). In

emphasising the “fabulous day” and the “positive feedback” (HT 2.2) the data certainly appears to support the view that this was an effective approach to delivery which contributed to the “rich curriculum environment” (HT11.2) However while the narrative of the HTs indicate this to be a strength of the SD approach to ITT, some caution is needed in confirming that the reform of ITE set out in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) has indeed fulfilled its intention of raising standards in education by improving the quality of training by way of this school-led approach to the preparation of future teachers (see section 2.1.2). In emphasising “what we need” (HT 8.1 in the findings) and focussing on “creating our own curriculum” (HT8.1), this innovative approach to the curriculum may well result in what could be considered a superficial approach to the planning and delivery of the curriculum for ITT which capitalises on the expertise within the SDA as opposed to reflecting the ‘educational principles’ cited by Brown et al. (2016:5) in section 2.2.6. These principles include the core elements of the ITE curriculum cited by Burgess (2013:34) in section 2.2.5. In emphasising the “fabulous day” and the “positive feedback” (HT 2.2), the data certainly appears to support the perception that this was an effective approach to delivery which contributed to the “rich curriculum environment” (HT11.2) and provided “[primary curriculum] opportunities that would fit in with [student] development” (HT2.1) outlined in the findings. In a further consideration of the comments of Brown et al. (2016:5) set out in 2.2.6 of the literature presented, it could be that the design of the training by a SDA is driven by the local needs of the partnership rather than the deeply held values and beliefs of the content of ITE. This brings into question the efficacy of a school-led approach to ITT to meet the priorities of successive governments referred to by Bates, Lewis and Pickard (2019:147) in section 2.1.2. Furthermore, the observations of Ellis (2006:52) explored in section

2.2.8 of this thesis lead me to question the neutrality of the training identified by Furlong (2013c:133) in section 2.2 when this training is owned and delivered by the SDA. While the observations of Ellis (2006:52) are primarily focussed on the apprenticeship approach to training teachers, I believe they are pertinent here and raise questions about the ability of the SDA to provide a training programme which enables student teachers to question practice. This supports the sentiment of Furlong (2013c:133), who emphasise the importance of supporting student teachers 'to evaluate and when necessary throw doubt' on the value and appropriateness of the practice they are observing in school (see section 2.2.5). In focussing on "….what we know" (HT 8.1), the training planned and delivered by the SDA may lead to a narrow experience of learning which perpetuates the characteristics of teaching skills and knowledge, determined by the composition and needs of a SDA rather than enabling student teachers to reflect and apply their knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning at a range of levels in a range of contexts. Given this it may well be that the intent of the SD model, that is improving the quality of education across England by improving the quality of its teachers as part of the reform of ITT in the White paper (DfE, 2010), is compromised. This will be explored in more detail in section 6.5.8.

6.5.7 "…an absolute nightmare" (HT 2.1)

The importance of the school-based element in the traditional model of ITT has been chronicled in chapter 2 theme one and the literature presented has demonstrated that this is an essential part of a programme of ITE. Yet, the comments of Price and Willet (2006:34) who point out that this is an 'integral part of the training' (see section 2.2.2) seem to be 'at odds' with the experiences of the HTs in this study. My interpretation

of the data from interview 1 and 2 suggest that while this has been an integral aspect of the preparation of future teachers, the perception of the HTs is that has been a 'bolt on' as opposed to an integral, complete part, of the student journey. The comments of HT 2.1 that the placing of students "must be an absolute nightmare" for HEIs appears to revisit HTs' concerns about the organisation of placements raised in the data for RQ1 (see section 6.4.3). While the frustration of this was undoubtedly a contributing factor for involving their schools in the SD model of ITT, the data from interview 2 indicates that "being a smaller group" (HT 2.1) brought possible benefits of this activity being taken up by a SDA as part of the partnership agreement between schools and HEIs. In having ownership of this as part of the training, the "flexibility to offer placements" commented on by HT 11.2 indicates that student teachers could be assured the opportunity to observe practice in a range of contexts. Based on the composition of the two SDAs in this study, the data shows by way of the comments of HT5.1 and HT 10.1 in the findings, that there was evidence to support this belief. Additionally, the illustration of a "handover" (HT 3.2, field notes in the findings) to ensure that a student has coverage of other areas of the curriculum raise the possibilities of an interesting alternative to the traditional model of organising placements which, I suggest. could ensure a breadth of teaching opportunities desirable for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, the flexibility to respond to student need and address issues of subject knowledge illustrated by the anecdotal account of HT 2.2 appears to highlight how the SD model of ITT gives the participating HTs the power to liberate themselves from their dissatisfaction in the traditional model of ITE, particularly in the area of organisation of placements. In organising placements "that would fit in with [student] development" the data suggests that the SDA could plan in a more strategic way to ensure continuity of the

student journey to meet the requirements of the school-based element of ITT. The data suggests an alternative to the established roles of HEIs and schools explored in section 2.2. and reconceptualises the function of a partnership between these two stakeholders beyond the false dichotomy of ITE referred to by Spendlove, Howes and Wake (2010:66) in section 2.2.4.

6.5.8 "…oozing in up to date pedagogy" (HT5.2)

The findings raise the issue of HTs' perceptions of what constitutes a curriculum for ITT and add more weight to the ongoing debate about who should be training these 'top graduates,' which was set out in section 1.3 of the literature presented. The comments of HT7.2 and 8.1 in the findings position schools as 'best placed' to plan and deliver the training as opposed to their 'colleagues' in HEIs and my interpretation of the data suggests that there are two elements to this. The basis of this first element appears to relate to the organisation of the curriculum for ITT. In owning the training and locating it in the SDA, this enables the schools to capitalise on the immediacy of student teachers looking at theory and then observing the practice in school. The perceived benefits of this approach to training within the SDAs has already been highlighted in section 6.5.4 and section 6.4.6 and the comments of HT 1.2 that students will have "access" (HT1.2) to the theory, to observe and then to put this into practice confirm this perceived value further. The second element appears to be rooted in the comments of HT 5.1 where, in identifying the importance of understanding "the theory behind the teaching" (HT 5.1) and the reflections on the difference between a "very good teaching assistant or a teacher" (HT2.1), the data reveals the significance for all HTs in this study of underpinning a programme of ITT with pedagogy and the

validity of the SDA taking on the delivery of this content. In describing staff as "oozing in up to date pedagogy and research," HT5.2 confirms the view of all HTs that they are 'recent and relevant,' a view which they believe brings authenticity to the SD model of ITT as opposed to the traditional model. Additionally, in setting out that the content of the programme across the SDA will be delivered by "experts in their field" (HT7.2), the data indicates that HTs determine that this will add value to both the content and delivery of the programme and will result in the high-quality outcomes that they aspire to. Further analysis of the data from interview 1 and 2 once again reveals the frustration of all HTs in this study with their role in the traditional model of ITE. In establishing that "in many ways we're equally at the forefront of learning as university people," HT6.1 represents the views of many of the HTs in determining their suitability for an expanded role in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT. This view appears to concur with the rhetoric of the Coalition government outlined in section 2.5 that "handing back the power to the professionals" (Whitty, 2014:7) will raise the quality of teachers. However, this view is not without its complications and gives rise to the complex and multifaceted perspectives about the preparation of future teachers critiqued in section 2.2.4 5of the literature presented. The data from interviews 1 and 2 indicates that this complexity is rooted in HTs' views of pedagogy (HTs 1.1; 3.1; 4.1; 6.1; 7.1 in the findings) and it is in this understanding that HTs begin to articulate their view of what constitutes a curriculum for ITT. In contextualising the planning and delivery of the training in "the other parts of the curriculum" (HT 8.1), the data shows that HTs define their role as "experts" in those aspects of the curriculum for ITT that are practised in school and observable in the classroom, what HT 3.1 identified as areas of assessment, behaviour management and curriculum subjects. In reviewing the data from interview 1 and 2, I

contend that HTs' perceptions of their role in owning the training for the award of QTS seeks to 'bridge the gap' between the polarised views of provision set out by key commentators in HEI where school generally exemplifies the practical core tasks of the profession whereas HEIs strive to provide the theoretical underpinnings. Additionally in 'claiming ownership' of those aspects of the curriculum for ITT that are practised in school and observable in the classroom, it seems that the view of HTs is more in line with the rhetoric of the Coalition government alluded to above, a rhetoric which was heavily influenced by the notion of a technical craft of teaching. Yet my interpretation of the data does not appear to support this, and the comments of HT 6.1 seem to confirm my view. In identifying that HEIs "provide that academic rigour," HT 6.1 differentiates between that part of the curriculum for ITT which leads to the award of QTS and that part of the curriculum for ITT "in the context of the [award] of PGCE" (HT6.1). My interpretation is that this implies a curriculum for ITT which brings together the strength of the "experts in their field" (HT8.1) and "the university people" (HT6.1) and supports a continued role of HEIs in the curriculum for ITT as part of the preparation of future teachers. While the significance of this will be explored in more detail in RQ3, it is interesting to note that the view of the HTs in this study appear to endorse the view of the House of Commons Children, Schools and Families committee (House of Commons 2010) that HEIs are important in 'bringing rigour and status to ITT .'

However, despite the commitment and conviction expressed by all HTs about the benefits of owning the training, the data from interview 2 (collected at the end of the first year of taking the lead in the SD model of ITT) reveals the reality of HTs' experiences over their first year in taking the lead. The data shows that the challenge

of keeping “up to date” was not only a view expressed by HT 2.1 and this raises the issue of the capacity of schools to ‘take on’ ownership of both the recruitment and training. In asserting that “with the best will in the world we’ve a bigger job” (HT2.1), the data suggests that for some HTs the view of Furlong (2005:215) in section 2.2.4that ‘a school’s core business after all is that of teaching children’ has some merit. This will be explored in more detail in RQ3.

6.5.9 “…fall[ing] in with the university’s constraints” (HT7.2)

In section 6.4.8 I alluded to a SDA as an autonomous field embedded within the field of ITT operating around the capital that the HTs in this study bring to the SDA. Furthermore, I posited that the data from interview 1 suggested that HTs perceived that balance of power was generally more evenly and equitably balanced and that this was due to the capital that each HT had. Yet my interpretation of the data from interview 2 begins to reshape this view and I submit that it is in the comments of HT 7.2 that the oscillating pendulum of power begins to emerge (see section 3.2.9). In highlighting the “university constraints” (HT7.2), it would appear for the HTs in this study that the power of the HEIs is acting in the role of ‘the spectre at the feast.,’ reminding them of the two areas of dissatisfaction with the role of the HEI highlighted in RQ1. While the data from interview 2 indicates that these constraints reside in the protocols of the recruitment process, the power of the HEIs is still perceived as a limiting force by the HTs in this study. Consequently, there seems to be a tension here in the concept of the autonomous field of a SDA and the emergence of power relations between HTs and the partner HEI in this study. Returning to the literature presented, the work of Ferrare and Apple and their interpretations of Bourdieu’s field theory critiqued in section

3.1.7 offers a possible insight to explain this. Ferrare and Apple (2015:47) posit that fields are susceptible to external influences, 'practices in relation to the field of power at given historical moment' and as a result a field is not a fixed entity, it is subject to change and develops in relation to the knowledge systems and procedures of the time. Furthermore, they continue that it is the dominant field of power which intersects and interacts with any given field which can result in the modification of the distinctive feature of the field. In this study I propose that the external influences are those set out in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) and the Guide to School Direct (DfE, 2014) which outline the requirements that, for those schools wishing to take the lead in the SD model of ITT, they must work in partnership with an accredited ITT provider (see section 1.3). As the SD model of ITT is a graduate route into teaching it is subject to those requirements of this route into teaching. While the data shows that this was felt to be a constraint, despite ownership of recruitment and training by the HTs in this study, compliance with "the university's protocols" (HT7.2) was necessary. Given this, it would appear that the partner HEI is operating in a different field to that of the HTs and one in which the HEI takes the role of the dominant power intersecting and interacting with the micro field of the SDA occupied by the HTs in this study. Consequently, I propose that these power relations do not exist within the field of a SDA, rather in the field of a PGCE programme of ITT in which the SDA is embedded. This will be developed further in RQ3 (see section 6.6.4).

6.5.10 Concluding comments

The analysis and discussion of the findings relating to RQ2 reveal the reality of this first year taking the lead in the SD model of ITT for the HTs in this study. The

perception of their contribution to the preparation of future teachers can be clearly heard in the 'voices' of the participating HTs as they 'showcase' the successes of this first year in taking the lead in ITT, and their narrative offers an alternatives perspective to that of the key commentators in HEI as to the function of the partnership between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. For the HTs in this study, ownership of the training has brought with it a number of benefits which they believe has raised the quality of the student experience and by way of this the quality of student teachers and NQTs. Their narrative shows how they have been innovative in their organisation of sessions in developing their own 'construct' of a programme of ITE and how they have been flexible to respond to students' needs. In their reflections on this first year, the opportunity to have access to curriculum sessions in school and the immediacy of seeing this in action, is perceived as being a feature of their provision. The delivery of the curriculum by teachers in schools brings a 'currency' to the SD model of ITT through the deployment of staff who are at the forefront of learning by way of their cultural capital. Furthermore, HTs perceive that the authenticity in the assessment of the Teaching Standards, particularly Teaching Standard 8 is a strength of locating the students in school over the full cycle of the academic year. The differentiation between the curriculum for the award of QTS, that which is practised and observable in the classroom, and the academic rigour of the award for the PGCE element of the programme delivered by the HEI illustrates how their perceptions of the function of a partnership between schools and HEI is evolving. However, the reality of taking the lead in a school-led model of ITT brings with it tensions in fulfilling the two roles, that of teaching children and training teachers, and raises questions about the ability to keep the curriculum for ITE 'recent and relevant.'

Additionally, in acknowledging the constraints of the HEI, it is clear in the narratives of the HTs that the perceptions of the dominance of HEI still pervades.

6.6 Research Question 3: What might be the implications of the decision to take the lead in school-led ITT for future partnerships between schools and HEIs?

The data for RQ3 was mainly drawn from HTs' responses to key question 4 in interview 1 and interview 2 and originated primarily in main themes 1 (Sustainability of this route into ITT), 2 (Preparation of good teachers), 3 (Composition of the SDA) and 4 (Whole School development of existing teachers). It is important to note that in comparison with RQ1 & 2, there appear to be fewer findings. This is because the focus of key question 4 is a reflection by HTs of the implications on future partnerships between schools and HEIs as a result of taking the lead in ITT by way of the SD model. While these responses contribute to the findings of RQ3, RQ3 investigates both HTs' perceptions of the impact of the SD model of ITT on future partnerships and sheds light on their perceptions of the wider implications of partnerships between schools and HEIs. These perceptions will form the basis of the conclusion to this thesis. Furthermore, while the findings in this section continue to embody the unique accounts of each HT and allow the relational aspects of the phenomenon of SD to emerge (see section 5.9), the prominence of some HT voices heard in relation to RQ3 gives the impression that this is not the case. It is important therefore to recognise that these prominent voices are of those HTs who had been involved in steering groups whose remit was exploring issues of sustainability which arose as part of key theme 1.

6.6.1 Findings

The initial findings from interview 1 suggest that the views of HTs about the implications of taking the lead in school-led ITT for future partnerships between schools and HEIs were embedded in their perceptions of the *Political landscape* (theme 1.3) at the time of the research. HTs 1.1, 3.2 (field notes) and 8.1 gave specific examples of the impact that the success and anticipated growth of the SD model of ITT could have on HEIs as providers of the traditional model of ITE. HT 1.1 posited that this could lead to a "a two tired system" of ITT where schools were in direct *Competition* with HEIs (theme 1.2) to recruit students to the SD model of ITT in which "the best [students] have been creamed off" (HT8.1) and universities would have to "cope with the others" (HT1.1).

For some HTs these changes were not necessarily viewed solely as partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs but in the wider field of other providers of ITT. HTs 2.1, 2.2 and 6.1 questioned the trajectory of ITT as a direct consequence of The White Paper (DfE, 2010) and highlighted the changing landscape of provision from the traditional model to "the model of SD and beyond" (HT 5.2). HT 6.1 observed:

> "it's a truism isn't it…because it certainly seems to be the politically popular thing, it seems to be that's where the money is going you know places through National College…then of course it bound to change what's happening in the more traditional route."

HT 7.1 summarised this by reflecting on the allocation of places to these various providers which had been recently published for the following academic year.

> "I feel very pessimistic about the future[of ITT] and HEIs …I think the push is if you look at the SD allocation the places for this next academic year…it was the SCITTs that had the bulk and lots of teaching schools but less than they'd asked for."

The competition for student numbers was not only a feature of recruitment to a course of ITT. HT 11.1 stated that committing the school to a school-led model of ITT could impact on HEIs' ability as a provider to source school placements as part of the practical element of the programme. "We can't commit to some of the [other] universities, we've had to say 'no' to other students that we've normally had."

While findings from interview 1 suggest that HTs perceived there were "massive implications" (HT7.1) for future partnerships between HEIs and schools, the review of the findings from interview 2 suggest that the reality of any future decisions to take the lead in ITT was complex. HTs were unequivocally positive about their experience over the first year of the programme citing the 'massive impact" (HT4.2) on staff development (HTs 3.2 field notes and HT 10.2) and the recruitment of NQTs as a result of the involvement in SD (HT5.2; 10.2 and 11.2). HT7.2 commented that "they've [schools] still got a passion and…want to be more involved in the education of future teachers than they probably are in the traditional university led model."

However, findings from interview 2 suggest that in reflecting on the first year of taking the lead some HTs were questioning how they could sustain the "day job" (HT 6.2 field notes), that of teaching pupils and managing a school. This *Role of the school in ITT* (theme 1.4) was seen as *a Conflict of core business* (theme 1.5) for HTs 3.2 (field notes) and HT 1.2. "I know we're all about building people but primarily we're about building the children that we're with" (HT2.2). As HT7.2 concluded:

> "I think people have started to see the reality of it and the time commitment and financial commitment as well, and I think they've perhaps started to think maybe this isn't going to be something that they can commit to."

However, tensions between the desire to take the lead in ITT and the *Capacity* (theme 1.1) of a school to balance the demands of organising and maintaining the expectations of the programme, led to doubts about future involvement in school-led routes.

> "It's been a challenging journey; it's been vastly rewarding… but it's been more complicated than I'd anticipated and the impact on [the school has been] exciting… and I think there's some real good successes, but whether it's a sustainable model for the future I'm really not sure" (HT 7.1).

The issue of the sustainability of the SD route into ITT for schools (theme 1) was where the complexity of future decisions was rooted and was particularly related to the capacity of the school to fulfil *The role of the school in ITT* (theme 3.1) in organising and delivering a programme of ITT. Capacity was principally exemplified by the time staff in the two SDAs spent supporting a student teacher in either their host schools or on one of the 3 significant placements over the full cycle of an academic year (see section 1.5). Findings from interview 1 suggest that HTs perceived that they could have a positive impact on the preparation of future teachers by growing the student to be "a good/outstanding NQT (HT11.1). This opportunity to "shape a teacher" (HT5.1) and "to nurture them a bit more" (HT9.1, endorsed by HT12.1) was embedded in the confidence that schools were able to provide better continuity of *Support for students in school* (theme 3.2) than in partnership with HEI in the traditional model of ITE, particularly if there were issues with the student in school. As HT 9.1 explained:

> "…dealing with tutors [from the university] seems quite hard…if something's not going well…you are trying to deal with a university then you're dealing with different tutors."

Findings from interviews 1and 2 suggest that the time given to support student teachers in all aspects of provision throughout the full cycle of the academic year was equated with output and outcome of NQTs (see RQ1) and was therefore "correctly time consuming" (HT7.1). HT 2.2 remarked, "in terms of the time element, in terms of

the workload of the mentor and the position of the class teacher it is far more intense than what it is when it's from a university." This intensity was corroborated by HT 10.2 who observed that staff "are spending a lot of their time helping [this] student out," time that was in addition to their usual roles and responsibilities." This resulted in "extra work that [the staff are] doing. So that is hard work" (HT9.2). However, while supporting students in school was perceived as intense and time consuming this was not always a negative experience and in interview 2 HTs 9.2, 11.2 and 12.2 cited a range of benefits to supporting student teachers in their host schools and the impact they believed it had on their staff. HT10.2 felt that "staff really have actually enjoyed having the students in, it's been very beneficial for them to have a little bit of time out of class and do other stuff." Examples of this included time to "develop the coordinator role" (HT1.2) and giving the leading teacher for science time to work with staff on evidence for a particular national award (HT5.2). The discrepancy of experience as a result of the capacity of staff to support students in host schools seemed to "very much depend upon your student…That's the key to it." (HT4.2). The need to support student teachers was not the only example of where "at times, it was difficult to find the time" (HT1.2). The intensity of support for students within the two SDAs was also related to a particular role created in each of the SDAs to manage the programme of ITT and to quality assure (QA) placement and the student experience. This brought its own challenges which were communicated in a particular example given by HT7.2 who was joined by one of her leading staff members who had taken on this role:

> "It's been constant; there's been no switch off time from it… that, so even when I am here the trainees know I'm here, they e-mail regularly, the schools expect an immediate response."

The constant demands of this role were acknowledged by other HTs within the two SDA (HTs 4.2; 9.2; 12.2). HT2.2 recounted her reluctance to access support from the leading teacher to moderate a student placement as "I'm always conscious of the fact that she's got a day job and she's got X, Y and Z to do as well." However, meeting the programme requirements, making sure that all the trainees were getting a "similar diet" (HT2.2) and ensuring the consistency of student experience was another instance where the capacity of the school to take the lead was questionable. HT 2.2 observed:

> "The schools within the Alliances…they all have very different expectations…in terms of requirements of what they want from the student teachers and interpretation of information can sometimes be quite different."

As an example, HT6.2 (field notes) explained that student teachers were having "vastly different experiences" of participation in teaching and support from schools because of the different ways in which host schools organised their programme of days in school. This was in spite of "the fact that we'd met them all … last year and explained what a host school role was" (HT7.2). This diversity of student experience was not only recounted by HTs in how host schools organised their days. HT 12.2

expanded on a placement experience where the student had been asked to move out of the placement school and back to the host school. “I don’t know what it was, and I can’t speak badly… but the school that [the student teacher] was in initially asked for her to be moved and I think she was brilliant.” The staff time spent supporting students and the deployment of two leading teachers to QA the programme meant that some HTs questioned the capacity of a school to take the lead in ITT as it had operated over this first year. HT 1.2 proposed:

> “There’s got to be some element of funding so that there’s somebody in that school [who is paid] … to have a proper eye on [the students experience] rather than people having to ask somebody or give that somebody a job which is extra to what they do”

Funding for this model of ITT was recounted in detail by HT 7.2 who expressed concern that “the numbers don’t add up” and recounted “anecdotally” on the deficit in funding that themselves and other SDAs were experiencing, “so our experiences, you know, have been shared across other teaching schools.” The *Ownership of the training process* (theme 2.2) meant that staff in the two SDAs were not only spending time supporting students but were being deployed to teach aspects of the curriculum which incurred not both staff time and staffing costs for supply and resources (HTs 2.2; 3.2 field notes; 5.2; 6.2; 8.2). As a result, HTs 5.2, 7.2 and 10.1 commented on how providing and maintaining staffing as a resource in this model of ITT could have implications for future iterations of the programme. HT7.2 concluded that, “if we

were running it again, I think we'd have to look at how we can reduce costs. I'm not actually convinced how we can do it."

The limited capacity of schools to meet the demands of the programme under the current "shortfall from teaching school monies" (HT7.2), led some HTs to consider future *Partnership arrangements between HEIs and schools* (theme 2.4) for the preparation of future teachers. HTs 1.2, 3.2, 8.2 and 9.2 commented that they had "grown" (HT 5.2) in their understanding of the contribution to ITT that they could make. HT3.2 (field notes) described how the experience of taking the lead in ITT had "changed" her understanding of how a partnership between schools and HEIs could operate but felt that the term partnership was still "a little ambiguous." Reflecting on the nature of partnership with a partner HEI, HT1.2 suggested that this was largely a QA role and would ensure that the standards that the SDA aspired to were upheld: "I thought, those standards[in the HEI] are there so I'm not going anywhere dangerous…I've still got the [partner HEI] there. That meant a lot to me because I didn't want to lose that [link]." This was a view that was supported by HT2.2 who explained that this model is 'not entirely school-led' and that "the shared partnership with [partner HEI] was one of the things that attracted the school to working within the Alliance." The significance of this shared partnership appeared to be rooted in a delineation of roles where it was posited that HEIs fulfilled a QA role and were seen as "gatekeepers of the award of PGCE" (HT6.2 field notes: see RQ2), whereas schools had ownership of recruitment to the programme, curriculum for QTS and the organisation of school-based practice (HTs 8.2;10.2 and 12.2). While the SD model of ITT was a conceivable way for schools and HEIs to work in partnership the

complexities of the sustainability of this route remained questionable. As HT 1.2 speculated:

> "Looking down the road what will it look like in 10 years time?...the more you take away from the University the more you dilute what the University have and eventually if you got rid of the Universities have the schools got that capacity?...it's a different kind of thing and you're changing the whole nature of what schools look like."

6.6.2 Analysis and discussion of the findings of Research Question 3

The findings of RQ3 recount the insights that HTs have about the nature of future partnerships with HEIs based on their unique experiences in their first year of taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT. The analysis of the data for RQ3 supports the view of Russell (2006:22) in section 4.8 whereby, in constructing their understanding of the phenomenon of school-led ITT, the HTs in this study 'contemplated and unpacked' (ibid) this experience in interview 2. In doing so the data shows that this had a bearing on their view of the world of ITE and created a new reality in which their experiences of school-led ITT influenced their perceptions of future partnerships with HEIs. The data shows that generally the HTs in this study believe future partnerships with HEIs are complex and this complexity is situated in their individual expectations of their role in the preparation of future teachers in any subsequent partnerships with accredited providers of ITT (see RQ2). Furthermore, this complexity appears to be compounded by their perceived

uncertainty in the political landscape and the trajectory of ITT in future developments particularly in the field of school-led ITT. It is important to remind the reader that the data collected was over the full cycle of the academic year September 2014-2015 and between that time and the time of writing, models of school-led ITT have developed (see section 1.3). However, while the trajectory of ITT has continued to emphasise the importance of school-led models of ITT for the preparation of future teachers, the narrative of the HTs raises the issue of the capacity of schools to support this and the sustainability of this as a route into teaching. Consequently, analysis of the data related to RQ3 continues to reflect the intangible nature of power relations between the stakeholders in the field of ITE, the government, schools and HEIs and I will return to the works Foucault (1982:789) and Bourdieu to explore how these interactions shape HTs' views of future partnership with HEIs and influence their decisions.

6.6.3 "…cop[ing] with the others" (HT1.1).

The findings give further weight to the existence of power relations between schools and HEIs identified in section 6.4.5 and 6.5.9. The possibility of a "two-tiered system" cited by HT 1.1 reveals a perception of 'winners and losers' in the preparation of future teachers and conveys a view that this will impact not only on future partnerships between HTs in this study and HEIs but will result in a lasting change of the role of schools across the field of ITT. In stating that HEIs would have to "cope with the others" (HT1.1), there is a perception of a dualistic nature to the provision of ITT whereby potential student teachers select between the SD model of school-led ITT or that provided by the partner HEI as a consequence of the marketisation of ITE

outlined in section 2.1.6. HT1.1 appears to position schools as having the 'upper hand,' recruiting the best candidates as part of the SD model of ITT and the views of HT8.1 that schools will have "creamed off" the best recruits to a school-led programme of ITT appear to support this view. The HTs' narratives from interview 2 certainly celebrate the success of their first year of taking the lead in ITT and confirm their perception that this is a desirable route into teaching. The "massive impact" cited by HT 4.2 on staff development and most notably the recruitment of NQTs appears to address the areas of concern highlighted in RQ1 and provides further evidence of their success. The idea that schools could "shape a teacher" (HT5.1) and the supporting comments of HT 9.1 and 12. 1 in the findings seem to indicate that for the HTs in this study the SD model of ITT has resolved their dissatisfaction in the traditional model and resulted in the high quality outcomes that the 2 SDAs aspired to. In stating that "we've had to say 'no' to other students that we've normally had," (HT 11.1) my interpretations of the data is that the SD model is the preferred model and that working with an accredited provider to deliver this model of ITT could be the way forward for future partnerships between themselves and HEIs.

The narrative of the participating HTs to this point seems to characterise the comments of Brown (2017:33) in section 3.2.8. whereby the expansion of SCITT and SD models of ITT, with their emphasis on recruitment to meet the needs of their school clusters, moves the preparation of future teachers further away from traditional partnership with HEIs. The comments of HT 6.1 in the findings both support and expand this view. The idea that school-led "seems to be the politically popular thing" offers an insight into the wider implications for future partnership between schools and HEIs across the field of ITT as a result of schools being given the opportunity to

take the lead and the findings once again highlight the nature of the interconnected and complex power relations between the stakeholders in ITE. In putting schools in the 'driving seat' (Whiting et al, 2018:72) by way of the SD model of ITT, the data from interviews 1 and 2 confirms that schools have been able to 'claim' ownership of the recruitment and training process outlined in the White Paper (DfE, 2010) and now 'have a voice' in what they want to purchase from the provider. As a result, the data confirms that the HTs in this study see themselves in direct competition with their partner HEI for potential students by way of the SD model of ITT: being a provider of ITT is now their reality. Consequently, my interpretation of the data to this point adds further weight of the need to redefine the roles and responsibilities in future partnerships between the HTs in this study and partner HEIs based on the success of their first year taking the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT.

6.6.4 "…the model of SD and beyond" (HT5.2)

However, the reality of the marketisation of ITE is not without its complications. In situating the narratives of the HTs in the wider political context, the complexity of power relationships between schools and government emerge. I suggest that this complexity is rooted in the participating HTs' understanding of the intent of government in the reform of ITE and the 'myriad of routes' (House of Commons (73) 2016 :6) into teaching outlined in section 2.2.3. It is in the comments of HT 5.2 in the findings who, in citing "the model of SD and beyond," reveals what I interpret as the challenge for schools in taking the lead in ITT and the implications of this for future partnerships between schools and HEIs. In signposting the role of the "National

College" the comments of HT6.1 appear to support the view that the trajectory of ITT is moving in favour of school-led models of ITT and gives credence to the "two-tiered system" cited by HT 1.1. This would confirm the success of moves by consecutive governments between 1992 to the present day, moves which seek to "curb the dominance of HEIs (Brooks, 2006:3, see section 2.2.3). In recounting the allocation of student numbers for the next academic year, the recognition of HT 7.1 that "it was the SCITTs that had the bulk" (HT7.1) reveals undercurrents of what I interpret as frustration and disappointment in the recognition that the distribution of potential students to a programme of ITT 'favoured' an alternative model of ITT. It would appear that while the marketisation of ITE has brought the opportunity to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT, the trajectory of ITT brings with it the realisation of the scale of the competition across the field of ITT for the HTs in this study. Consequently, my interpretation of the data from interview 2 indicates that in introducing the SD model of ITT as part of educational reform, the intent of government has been 'misinterpreted and misunderstood' by some of the HTs in this study. Returning to the literature presented, I would argue that this 'misinterpretation' is rooted in the discourse of ITE, that is the 'discursive field' (Lemke, 2002:5) outlined in section 3.2.7 whereby HTs' 'conduct, thoughts, decisions and aspirations' (Baretta and Busco, 2011:2) in relation to school-led ITT have been constructed and the decision to take the lead in ITT has been made. The data suggests that while the marketisation of ITE has brought the opportunity to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT, the trajectory of ITT brings with it the perception of a 'hierarchy' of school-led models of ITT. Furthermore, based on this interpretation, the data indicates that for some HTs in this study their perception is that the SD model might well be 'the poor relation' of school-

led models of ITT: a perception which has implications for the sustainability of the programme and implications for future partnerships between schools and HEIs (see section 6.6.5). I suggest that this perception collides with the reality of the competition across school-led models of ITT and gives rise to the frustrations and disappointments of some HTs in this study. Returning to the data, I put forward that the "pessimism" of HT 7.1 resides in the complexities of power relations between schools and government, more specifically Foucault's two techniques of power interpreted by Ball (2012:30) in section 3.2.5. Reflecting on this it could be argued that, by way of the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010), the Coalition government has exercised regulatory power in legislating the policy to enact educational reform, embedded within which is the reform of ITE and the introduction of the SD model for the preparation of future teachers. In introducing a new school-led model of ITT as part of this reform, the Coalition government made real the permitting circumstances, the social sphere for the HTs in this study to interpret and enact this policy (see section 3.2.7). For the HTs in this study in choosing to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers by way of the SD model the reality of the legislation in 'practice,' the disciplinary power, is achieved. It is in the practice, the interpretation of the policy that I suggest the frustrations and disappointments of the participating HTs become apparent. In legislating the policy for educational reform The White Paper (DfE, 2010) goes beyond the introduction of a new school-led model of ITT, it outlines the 'growth' of school-led ITT and makes real "the model of SD and beyond" cited by HT5.2. Expanding on this I suggest that the complexity of power relationships between schools and government are founded in the juxtaposition of Foucault's techniques of power and the power relations embedded in Bourdieu's field theory (Rawolle and Lingard, 2008:732). Here the dominant power of government intersects

and interacts with the micro field of the SDA. The perception that the SD model of ITT is 'the poor relation' by way of the allocation of potential student numbers, changes and reshapes the aspirations of the HTs in this study in their future role in the preparation of future teachers. It reconceptualises the perceived dualistic nature of the provision of ITT of HT 1.2. and changes the power relations between not only schools and HEIs but between schools working in partnership with an accredited provider of ITT, and those schools who have been given the status as accredited providers of ITT by the government. This interpretation supports the view of Brown (2017:26) who in section 3.2.8 comments that 'recent policy changes including SD have also altered the balance of power between universities and schools and in turn their relationship with one another.' Additionally, while this section has highlighted the complexities of power relations between schools and government, I suggest that my interpretation of the data has a bearing on the complexities of power between schools and HEIs. By this I mean that the attraction of "the shared partnership with [partner HEI]" (HT2.2) supported by the comments of HTs 8.2, 10.2 and 12.2 indicates that despite the accelerated growth of models of school-led ITT there is the possibility for a 'middle ground' for future partnerships between schools and HEIs. The comments of HT2.2 confirms and extends my analysis in section 6.6.3 whereby I suggested that the SD model of ITT had resolved their dissatisfaction in the traditional model of ITE. In observing that this model is "not entirely school-led" (HT2.2) the findings support the view that for some HTs being involved in a wholly school-led model of ITT is not the attraction. The reality of taking the lead in the SD model of ITT has brought a "changed" (HT 3.2 field notes) understanding of what a partnership between schools and HEIs could be like and has altered the nature of future partnerships with HEIs. Consequently the 'success' of government moves to 'curb the dominance of HEIs'

(Brooks, 2006:3) seems to be 'at risk' and it would appear that the oscillating pendulum of power relations set out in section 3.2.9 is 'swinging' once more.

6.6.5 "…the numbers don't add up" (HT7.1)

Notwithstanding the challenges of competition across providers in ITT, further analysis of the data reveals why the allocation of student numbers appears to be 'high stakes' for the HTs in this study. Despite a continuing "passion" (HT7.2) for being involved in the preparation of future teachers, the findings raise the issue of the sustainability of the SD model of ITT for the 2 SDAs. In emphasising that "the numbers don't add up," HT 7.1 represents the views of other HTs who reveal concerns about this as a viable route into teaching. The data from interview 2 suggests that these concerns are linked ostensibly with the funding for this model outlined in section 1.3 whereby a negotiated portion of funding would move from the accredited provider, the University, with the student, to the school (Teaching Agency, 2012). In suggesting that "we'd have to look at how we can reduce costs" (HT 7.1) it could be argued that this is another example of the shift in power relations between schools and HEIs whereby schools are 'exercising their power' in 'experiment[ing] with different packages' (Brown, 2017: 33), leaving HEIs to 'compromise and adapt to increasing uncertainty' (Spendlove, 2020: see section 3.2.8). The "financial commitment" highlighted by HT 7.2 at the end of the first year of taking the lead confirms that funding is undeniably a significant factor for both SDAs. I suggest that the data from interview 2 shows that the relationship between sustainability of the programme and finances are complex, explicitly rooted in the funding model agreed between the school and the partner HEI yet implicitly linked with HTs' interpretation of the

requirements of the PGCE programme and the capacity of the school/SDA to meet these requirements. My interpretation of the data reveals that the dominant power of HEI intersects with the field of the SDA and the 'spectre at the feast' identified in section 6.5.9 raises its head once more. Analysis of the data from interview 2 shows that all HTs defined 'capacity' as the time commitment of the staff within a school and across a SDA to support students in either their host schools or on one of the 3 significant placements over the course of an academic year. The data indicates that the costings of the activity across the SDA in terms of delivering curriculum lectures and organising placements were clear and transparent, able to be costed. However in identifying the "extra work that [the staff are] doing" (HT9.2) the narrative of the HTs reveals that there are different understandings of supporting student teachers across the SDA and I suggest that it is these different understandings that have implications for the HTs' ability, their capacity to meet this requirement. My interpretation of the data leads me to believe that the 'capacity' of a SDA is measured in relation to the scale and the 'cost' of the commitment to support student teachers and it is this which is significant to the issue of sustainability for the HTs in this study.

The findings suggest a 'quid pro quo' based on the accounts of HT 2.2, 9.2, 11.2 and 12.2 whereby the commitment of time given by class teachers and mentors supporting students in the initial stages is balanced by the benefits in the latter stages of the programme. However, in noting that staff across the SDA had "started to see the reality of it [taking the lead in ITT]" (HT7.2), further analysis of the data shows that for some HTs in the study their experiences of supporting students teachers was leading to a conflict of roles. In highlighting the significance of "the day job" (HT6.2 field notes) the data reminds us of the 'core business' of schools' (Furlong, 2005:215)

introduced in section 6.5.8. The tension between supporting students identified in interview 2 as part of taking the lead in ITT leads me to suggest that in there is potentially a misalignment with the government intention of raising standards in education by way of increasing school-led ITT and the capacity of the schools to deliver this.

6.6.6 "…a similar diet" (HT2.2)

In questioning marking the existence of a "similar diet" of training and support for students, there is what I interpret as a subtle shift in HTs' roles and responsibilities which expose the existence of power relations within a SDA. This appears to be at odds with my interpretation of the data from interview 1 in section 6.4.8 where I posited that within a microfield of a SDA, HTs perceived that roles and responsibilities were generally more evenly and equitably balanced as a result of the 'cultural capital' that they each brought to the Alliance. While the comments of HT 8.1 at the time of interview 1 'hint' at the existence of power relations, interpretations of the data from interview 2 appear to confirm these. Consequently, I return to the work of Bourdieu to expand on my analysis in section 6.4.8.

Bourdieu (1998:7) reminds us that the interactions of individuals in a field give rise to the power relations among the members (see section 3.1.7). My interpretation of the data from interview 2, leads me to believe that over the course of the first year taking the lead in ITT these interactions created related structures, that is differing layers of a hierarchy of roles which were being exercised within each SDA. In noting that despite explanations of "what a host school role was" (HT7.2), the data shows the frustration

of one HT in the difference in practice of host schools within a SDA and reveals a 'leadership' role in the management of the SDA. Furthermore, the creation of a particular role created in each of the SDAs to manage the programme of ITT and to quality assure (QA) placement and student experiences bring with it specific roles and responsibilities beyond those of supporting student in their base school. I suggest that the creation and adoption of these roles add to the 'cultural capital' of an individual that they bring to the field of the SDA, it is in this delineation of roles which results in a shift in power relations between the members of a SDA as they strive to maintain or achieve their position in the micro field.

6.6.7 Concluding comments for Research Question 3

The analysis and discussion of the findings relating to RQ3 reveal HTs perceptions about future partnerships between schools and HEIs based on reflections on their first year of taking the lead in the preparation future teachers by way of the SD model of ITT. These perceptions are varied, for some HTs framed in the positive experience of this first year yet for others these are rooted in their growing understanding of the scale of the competition for potential students between accredited providers in the field of ITT. While the passion for being involved in ITT has increased over the first year of taking the lead, the implications of this growing understanding is significant and brings doubts and uncertainties about the sustainability and the capacity of the HTs in this study to commit to a school-led model of ITT. Staff time and a financial commitment are undoubtedly significant factors here and underpin speculation about the viability of this as a model of ITT. It is within these doubts and uncertainties about their future in taking the lead in ITT by way of the SD model that the future of

partnerships between schools and HEIs are constructed. The reality of these experiences suggests that currently approaches to ITT are on a continuum: at one end the traditional model of ITE and at the other end the school-led model of ITT. The narratives of the HTs in this study indicate that this SD model of ITT is a preferred model of IIT, not wholly school-led but more than the traditional model.

6.7 Chapter summary

The purpose of this thesis has been to explore the perceptions of a group of HTs as they embark on their first year taking the lead in a school-led model of ITT and this chapter has presented the findings in relation to the three research questions outlined in section 1.7. It is important to remember that the purpose of this study is not to provide definitive reasons why HTs would choose to take the lead in ITT, but to explore the realities of a school-led model of ITT for the preparation of future teachers. Consequently, my interpretation of the data in the analysis and discussion pertaining to each RQ has 'given a voice' to HTs as to why they might seek to move away from the traditional model of ITE by focusing on HTs' perceptions of ITE exploring the 'realities' of their role in the preparation of future teachers. This section draws together the significant discussion points.

6.7.1 The function of the partnership between school and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers.

For the HTs in this study the decision to involve their schools in school-led ITT by way of the SD model is rooted in the actuality of partnership agreements between

schools and HEIs over a number of years. Experiences of partnership with HEI in areas of recruitment and training led them to believe that the opportunity to take the lead in a school-led model of ITT afforded by way of the publication of the White Paper (DfE, 2010) will result in a more collaborative model of partnership between schools and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers. In this, their decision reflects the government agenda for schools to take a more dominant role in ITT as part of the reform of ITE. HTs' perceptions of ITE underpin their approach to taking the lead, and their narrative offers an alternative approach to the function of the partnership between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. In framing the success of this first year in their 'construct' of a programme of ITE, there are benefits of this approach for the student experience which include the delivery of the curriculum by practising teachers and the authentic assessment of the Teaching Standards. Furthermore, the differentiation between the curriculum for the award of QTS and the academic rigour of the award for the PGCE element of the programme delivered by the HEI illustrates how HTs' perceptions of the function of a partnership between schools and HEI is evolving. Yet perceptions are abstract and intangible by nature and therefore exploring these led to the application of Bourdieu's concept of the habitus and the associated concepts of field and cultural capital, a theoretical framework which offers a possible exploration as to why these experiences may lead to a disposition to take the lead in the preparation of future teachers. These experiences form part of the HTs' 'personal histories' which I suggest underpin their perception of a delineation of roles and responsibilities between schools and HEIs which could help inform how future partnership agreements can be developed and sustained effectively. Consequently, a key recommendation from this study is that there is a need for schools and HEIs to review their understanding of partnership

particularly in identifying the role of schools in the delivery and organisation of a programme of ITE.

6.7.2 A curriculum for ITE

While the HTs in this study perceive that their 'construct' of a curriculum for ITE is underpinned by sound pedagogical knowledge, sustaining this also brings its challenges. This 'construct' of a curriculum for ITE appears to be contextual, rooted in their own experiences and reflecting the expertise and needs of the SDA. Furthermore, for some HTs in the study, taking ownership of the training in the SD model of ITT reveals a dual role and exposes a tension between the role of training student teachers and the role of teaching children, their core business. This raises questions about the capacity of the HTs to keep the curriculum for ITE up to date and give students the opportunity to reflect on their own practice through immersing them in current educational research: a role which has 'traditionally' been the aim of education departments in HEIs. Consequently, this leads me to suggest that there is greater collaboration between schools and HEIs in developing a curriculum for ITE which reflects the expertise of the two stakeholders.

6.7.3 A school-led model of ITT

While HTs emphasised their perception of both the value of and the necessity for a more dominant role in ITT, the reality of this experience led to questions about the capacity of a school to support a school-led model of ITT and the sustainability of their involvement with this particular SD model. This revealed the interconnected nature of

power relations between the 3 stakeholders in ITE, the government, the schools and HEIs. The relational aspects of these power relations are complex, reflected in a 'see-saw' of emotions made real in the juxtaposition of Foucault's 'techniques of power' (1982:789) and Bourdieu's field theory ((Reed-Danahay, 2005:155)). In being given the power to take the lead by way of the SD model of ITT the actions of government appeared with one hand to 'curb the dominance of HEIs' (Brooks 2006:3) and with the other bestow HTs with the capital to take a more dominant role in ITT. Yet the reality of this experience brings with it uncertainties about the sustainability and the capacity of the HTs in this study to commit to a school-led model of ITT. While these are ostensibly rooted in the financial implications of running a PGCE programme the commitment of staff time has implications for the quality of the student experience. Furthermore, the requirements of the accredited partner in the SD model of ITT, in this study the partner HEI, has brought the power of HEIs as an accredited provider back into prominence in the field of ITT. This has led to questions about what constitutes a school-led model of ITT and leads me to suggest that there is a need for stakeholders in ITE to consider how to make the SD model of ITT operational given current demands on schools and the current trajectory of ITT.

Chapter 7: Concluding thoughts

7.1 Introduction to the chapter

My study set out to explore the realities of a school-led model of ITT as a route into teaching by focusing on the perceptions of a selected group of Head Teachers (HTs) across two SDAs as they embarked upon their first experience of training a cohort of PGCE student teachers. This was underpinned by three research questions with the aim of giving a 'voice 'to these primary HTs to explore their perceptions of ITE. The summaries in section 6.4.9, 6.5.10 and 6.6.7 provide a response to these questions and the overall chapter summary draws together significant discussion points from the data collected and analysed. In this final chapter I will outline how this study contributes to both the research community and the field of ITE and I will set out my recommendations for stakeholders in ITE: policy makers, HEIs and schools. Furthermore, I will consider the limitations of the study and highlight the potential areas for further research. This chapter will conclude with my final reflections.

7.2 The contribution of this thesis to the research community

Completing this thesis has been a significant undertaking and one which has undoubtedly exposed me to the highs and lows of researching at PhD level. Yet the research process has been fascinating and having access to the personal narratives of the HTs in this study has been a privilege. Exploring the realities of a school-led model of ITT, giving HTs a 'voice' to delve into their experiences of this phenomenon

was a key aim of this study and therefore the selection and utilisation of an appropriate methodological approach by which to elicit these rich descriptions and to make sense of the reality of taking the lead in the SD model of ITT was critical. In adopting the interpretative nature of phenomenology as my philosophical stance I have been able to establish the efficacy of this as paradigm to share 'lived in' experiences of the participant HTs and showcase a methodology which was valid in enabling me to co-construct the participants perceptions of ITE. In researching a phenomenon in which I am also active as a tutor in HEI utilising the phenomenological attitude along with my growing understanding of the reflexive process has been invaluable in quietening my own voice to enable the voice of the HTs to be heard. Consequently, I have been able to explore the application of phenomenological process and establish phenomenology as 'fit for purpose' in a study of this kind. Additionally, my knowledge and understanding of the habitus as 'a structuring structure' (Bourdieu, 1990:53) has been noteworthy in helping me develop my identity as a researcher. Over the course of the research for this thesis, my experiences have contributed to my own 'personal history.' Paradoxically, in adopting phenomenology as my methodological approach in an attempt to give the HTs a 'voice' to explore their perceptions, I have found my own 'inner voice' as a researcher. Consequently, my assiduousness in adopting the 'phenomenological attitude' over the course of my research has resulted in an internalisation of the process of reflexivity and a 'disposition' to interpret others' 'realities' in a range of different contexts .In contextualising the research process in my reflections in Chapter 5 I offer that this process can be replicated or adapted by others embarking on a similar study.

7.3 The contribution of this thesis to ITE

Perceptions, values and beliefs are influenced by experience, and eliciting and then interpreting these experiences is challenging (Finlay, cited in Friesen, Henriksson and Saevi, 2012:22). In my application of the theoretical frameworks of Bourdieu and Foucault, this study has enabled me to interpret the perceptions of the 12 HTs in this study and present a rationale for the decision to take the lead in ITE by way of the SD model of ITT. Consequently, the significant contribution that this thesis makes is it is has made 'the intangible tangible' in that it gives a 'voice' to HTs to explore their perceptions of ITE. By locating the perceptions of HTs in Bourdieu's primary thinking tools ((Bourdieu in Wacquant, 1988:5 cited in Rawolle and Lingard, 2008:739), this thesis has filled a gap in the literature reviewed which suggests that there is little evidence which gives HTs a voice about their perceptions of and their role in ITE. As I set out in section 2.2.8, research around this area is mainly written from the perspective of key commentators in HEI. Therefore, looking at ITE through the lens of schools, one of the three stakeholders in ITE, offers an alternative perspective to the function of the partnership between HEIs and schools for the preparation of future teachers. Furthermore, in positioning power relations between government, HEIs and schools in the relational context of Foucault's concept of power, this study has critiqued the consequences of political ideology and its impact on the reform of ITE which have resulted in unclear roles and responsibilities of HEIs and schools in enacting the policy. It is intended that the insights gained from exploring the rich narrative of the HTs in this study will inform future partnership arrangements between schools and HEIs in ITE resulting in more 'equitable' power relations and clarifying the roles and responsibilities of schools in ITE, particularly in

the ‘construct’ of a curriculum for ITE. This will both define and enhance the joint responsibilities of schools and HEIs in the preparation of future teachers.

7.4 Recommendations of this study for the stakeholders in ITE

In the summary to chapter 6 (see section 6.6) I set out three significant discussion points. These related to the function of the partnership between schools and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers (6.6.1), a curriculum for ITE (section 6.6.2) and a school-led model of ITT. While these are three specific areas for discussion drawn from the findings of my study and pertinent across the field of ITE, these form the basis of recommendations for national policy makers, HEIs and schools.

7.4.1: Recommendations for national policymakers within the DfE

The findings of my study are directly relevant to any subsequent initiatives related to school-led ITT. The summary section 6.6.3 highlights that notwithstanding the ‘significance of practice-based learning’ (Gove, 2010) which appears to be at the heart of the increase in school-led models of ITT, moving ITE into schools results in the tensions explored in the findings relating to RQ2 and RQ3. The study clearly demonstrates that despite the “attractiveness” of an avenue of teacher recruitment (HT 10.1), the operational demands of school-led ITT are a reality which challenge the capacity of schools, the ‘street level bureaucrats’ (Lipsky 2010:11) who are left to mediate between the old and the new policy. The narrative of the HTs reveals that what ensues is a balancing act between the investment of staff time as they move between the core function of a school and the preparation of future teachers and the

financial implications in supporting school-led ITT, are explicit. As the agenda of raising standards continues, and the government continues to implement such policies the voices of the HTs who participated in this study send a clear message to policy makers that the introduction of any subsequent initiative of school-led ITT requires a strategy for implementation which is well thought out and funded to meet these operational demands.

7.4.2 Recommendations for HEIs

As the trajectory of ITT appears to move toward a greater emphasis on a school-led model of ITT, the study determines the relevance of listening to the 'voices' of the schools in determining the balance of roles and responsibilities of schools and HEIs as part of future partnership agreements. The findings of the study strongly indicate that building on the 'capital' of the schools in partnership with them is prudent. My research highlights the importance of HEIs 'unravelling' the complexities of partnership agreements in partnership with schools across the 'myriad of routes' into teaching (House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts 2016:63). Furthermore, as set out in section 6.6.1, my research indicates that within this discourse of ITE, the significance of constructing new models of partnership which both acknowledge the changes and developments in models of ITT yet build on the 'best' that both schools and HEIs can bring to the preparation of future teachers. The narrative of the HTs from RQ1, shows that HEIs have their own 'capital' in their years of providing a traditional model of ITE and the findings of this research are useful in signalling the need for and informing these new approaches to partnership agreements in the future. Therefore, the data collected for this study can be used to inform HEIs in key areas of

the function of a partnership which will be useful to identify and shape the role of schools in the delivery and organisation of a programme for ITE towards a more collaborative partnership model between school and HEIS (see section 6.6.). This seems to be particularly pertinent in relation to the construction of a curriculum for ITE as set out in section 6.6.2. Furthermore, the possibility of the transferability of ideas particularly around the organisation of placements and approaches to the joint planning and responsibility of the curriculum for ITE could be significant for future partnership agreements between schools and HEIs across a range of programmes of ITE both school led and traditional approaches to ITE in HEIs both locally and nationally.

7.3.3 Recommendations for schools

While the tensions in the operational demands of a school -led model of ITT have implications for policy makers, it is clear that these operational demands also have implications for schools who are considering taking the lead in ITT. While the narratives suggest that these implications can be challenging, in being given ownership of the recruitment and training, the HTs highlight some examples of 'best practice' particularly in relation to RQ2 which include the assessment of the Teaching Standards (see section 6.5.5) and a more flexible approach to organising the student experience. However, in drawing on the experiences of taking the lead in ITT and of each of the 12 HTs perspectives of ITE, the study exposes the challenges of power relations which are evident from within their own community. The findings signal some 'areas for concern' in the area of recruiting potential student teachers in light of competition between accredited providers particularly SCITTS and I offer these

narratives as a foundation to build on and inform other schools about the successful practices when embarking on a school-led model of ITT.

7.4 Limitations of the study

In reviewing the strengths of phenomenology as an approach, it could be argued that the limitations of this study are also revealed. In a phenomenological study such as this the optimum sampling size is small (Reid et al, 2005:21) consequently, the narratives of the 12 HTs are a 'snapshot' of their experience which does not appear to lend itself to generalisations. However, the participants are representative of a range of different types of schools all with a long standing commitment to partnerships between schools and HEIs for the preparation of futures teachers. This means that their experiences are relevant to characterising the current picture of partnership in a range of different training contexts. Additionally, these narratives are formed around experiences of a particular model of ITT with a specific partner HEI, yet notwithstanding the variety of approaches to organising the SD model of ITT across the number of HEIs in England the findings are relevant in setting out examples of 'best practice' to inform future partnerships in ITE between schools and HEIs.

7.5 Areas for future research

This study leads to possible further research in a number of areas but significantly in relation to the efficacy of partnerships between schools and HEIs. The study indicates that the concept of a successful partnerships between schools and HEIs for the preparation of future teachers lies in a more collaborative model of partnership, one in

which the voices of both stakeholders can be heard and issues of power and control can be addressed. Consequently, a study which brings together schools and HEIs with the intent of creating a 'space' to explore both the ideological and the practical aspects of how an effective partnership could operate would be both interesting and challenging. Additionally, replicating both the research process and utilising the Bourdesian concept of the habitus (Bourdieu, 1990:52) in research which considers the perceptions and values of ITE across other stakeholders in ITE would add depth and richness to the data collected for this proposed study.

7.6 Final reflections

Given that the 'voices' of the participating HTs have been a prominent feature of my research, it is fitting to frame my final reflections in the words of the participants. "Shap[ing] a teacher" (HT5.1) is, for me, a collective responsibility and, given the trajectory of ITT, one where the multiplicity of accredited providers and pervading ideologies could jeopardise the quality of student teachers and NQTs as opposed to raise it. Therefore, if the stakeholders in ITE, the government, schools and HEIs, are committed to raising standards in education by way of the reform of ITE then we, as stakeholders, need to acknowledge that the preparation of future teachers is "correctly time consuming" (HT7.1). I believe that this acknowledgement necessitates a shift in power relations primarily between schools and HEIs whereby the concept of dominance in the field of ITT is replaced with the concept of collaboration as we bring our areas of expertise to "create teachers" (HT12.1) by way of a new understanding of partnership.

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